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I. EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

THOMAS HOPKINS GALLAUDET.

In continuing our sketches of eminent teachers and educators, we shall dwell* in this number of our Journal, on the life, and services of one who was both a practical teacher, and a widely influential educator,—at once eminently successful in a new, and difficult department of human culture, and in diffusing by pen, voice, and example, sound views as to principles and methods of instruction and discipline applicable to schools of different grades and character. But he was not only a successful teacher, and a wise educator, but the founder of an institution by which thousands have already been rescued from the doom of ignorance, and isolation from their kind; and tens of thousands more will yet be introduced to the boundless store of human and divine knowledge, to the delights of social intercourse, to a participation in the privileges of American citizenship, to a practical skill in the useful and liberal arts, and to the ability generally of adding each something to the stock of human happiness, and subtracting something from the sum of human misery. For his widely beneficent life and sublime Christian virtues, the world has added one other name to its small roll of truly good men, who have founded institutions of beneficence, and lifted from a portion of our race the burden of a terrible calamity;—

One other name with power endowed,
To cheer and guide men onward as they pass,—
One other image on the heart bestowed,
To dwell there beautiful in holiness.

*The following sketch is abridged from a "Tribute to Gallaudet. A Discourse on the Life, Character, and Services of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, L. L. D., delivered before the Citizens of Hartford, 7th January 1852, with an Appendix, containing History of Deaf-mute Instruction and Institutions. By Henry Barnard. p. 267."
Vol. I, No. 4.—29.

THOMAS HOPKINS GALLAUDET was born in the city of Philadelphia, on the tenth of December, 1787. His father, Peter W. Gallaudet, was descended from that branch of a Huguenot family, which fled from France on the revocation of the Edict of Nantz, and settled afterwards near New Rochelle, in New York, on the borders of Connecticut. His mother, Jane Hopkins, was the daughter of Captain Thomas Hopkins, — a descendant of one of the first settlers of Hartford, whose name is recorded on the historical monument in the old burial-ground in the rear of the Centre Church. The family removed to Hartford in 1800, where the son continued ever after to reside.

Mr. Gallaudet completed his preparation at the Hartford Grammar School for the sophomore class of Yale College, which he entered in the autumn of 1802, in the fifteenth year of his age, — an age, as he often remarked, too young, to enable a student to reap the full advantage of a collegiate course of study and discipline. Although quite young, — the youngest member of his class, and by temperament and habit inclined to be cheerful and even mirthful, — he was ever studious, achieving a reputation for sound scholarship, second to no other in his class distinguished for the talent and attainments of its members, strictly observant of the laws of the institution, and graduated before he was eighteen years old. During his connection with college, he was remarkable for the accuracy of his recitations in every department of study, and was particularly eminent in mathematics, and for proficiency in English composition. To his early attention to mathematics we may attribute much of that discipline which enabled him to summon his mental vigor and resources at will, and to his early and constant practice of English composition, that facility and felicity of expression which characterized his conversation and more elaborate discourses.

Soon after leaving college he entered upon the study of law, in the office of Hon. Chauncey Goodrich. Here, as in everything he undertook, he was punctual and methodical, his recitations were remarkable for their accuracy, and he gave every assurance of his becoming in time a thorough and successful lawyer. The state of his health, which was never robust, compelled him, at the close of the first year, to suspend his legal studies, which he never resumed. The interval, before he entered on his duties as tutor in Yale College, in 1808, was devoted to an extensive course of reading in English literature, and the practice of English composition. His experience as tutor enabled him to review and extend his collegiate studies, and introduced him to the subject of education as a science, and to its practical duties as an art. No one could appreciate more highly than he did the value of even a brief experience in teaching, as a school of mental and moral

discipline, and as the most direct way to test the accuracy of attainments already made.

About this time, his health requiring a more active life, he undertook a business commission for a large house in New York, the prosecution of which took him over the Alleghanies, into the States of Ohio and Kentucky, — and on his return, with the intention of pursuing a mercantile life, he entered as a clerk in a counting-room in the city of New York. But neither law nor commerce seemed to open the field in which he could labor with his whole heart and mind, although he often referred to his early acquaintance with their elementary principles and forms of business and practice, as a valuable part of his own education. Neither did he regard his collegiate education as at all an inappropriate preparation for a life of active mercantile business. He never entertained, for himself or his children, the absurd and mischievous notion, which is too prevalent in society, that a man having a collegiate or a liberal education must necessarily preach, or practise law, or hold a political office, or trade, or speculate on a large scale, to be respectable. He regarded the thorough training of the mind, and large acquaintance with books and men, as a fit preparation for any business or pursuit.

Mr. Gallaudet made a public profession of his religious faith, and became a member of the First Congregational Church of Hartford, under the ministry of Rev. Dr. Strong. In the fall of 1811, he commenced the study of theology at Andover, which he prosecuted with his usual diligence and success, amid all the interruptions and drawbacks of delicate health. He was licensed to preach in 1814, and received, immediately, an invitation to assume the pastoral relations with a church in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and from several parishes in Connecticut; but, although admirably adapted for such a life, his Master had work for him in other and no less important fields of Christian duty.

Mr. Gallaudet was now twenty-seven years old. His life, thus far, was a course of diligent and thorough preparation for a career of eminent usefulness in any department of literary or professional labor. His mind was disciplined and enriched by an assiduous improvement of all the advantages of one of the best colleges in our country. He had assured himself of his own knowledge, by his success as a practical teacher. He had devoted much time to the attentive study of English literature, and to the practice of English composition. He had gained a knowledge of the elementary principles of law, and of legal forms, by an attendance on legal proceedings in court, and in the office of a successful practitioner. He had gone through a thorough course of theological study, and had already officiated with great acceptance

as a preacher in a temporary supply of the pulpit in several places. He had seen much of the world, and the transactions of business, in travel, and in the practical duties of the store and the counting-room. He was universally respected for his correct life, as well as thorough scholarship, and beloved for his benevolent feelings, social qualities, and courteous manners. He was ready for his mission. That mission was the long-neglected field of deaf-mute instruction, to which his attention had already been turned from his interest in little Alice Cogswell,* whose father's residence was in the immediate neighborhood of his own home, and who was, also, the companion of his own younger brothers and sisters. It was during an interview in his father's garden, where Alice was playing with other children, that Mr. Gallaudet, then a student at Andover, succeeded in arresting her attention by his use of signs, the natural language of the deaf and dumb, and in giving her a first lesson in written language, by teaching her that the word *hat* represented the *thing*, hat, which he held in his hand. Following up this first step, in such methods as his own ingenuity could suggest, and with such lights as he could gather from a publication of the Abbé Sicard, which Dr. Cogswell had procured from Paris, Mr. Gallaudet, from time to time, succeeded in imparting to her a knowledge of many simple words and sentences, which were much enlarged by members of her own family, and, especially, by her first teacher, Miss Lydia Huntley [better known as Mrs. Sigourney].† This success encouraged her father in the hope that, instead of sending his child, made more dear to him by her privations, away from home, to Edinburgh, or London, for instruction in the schools of Rev. R. Kinniburgh, or Dr. Watson, a school might be opened in Hartford.

Dr. Cogswell had already ascertained, by a circular addressed to the Congregational clergymen of Connecticut, that there were at least eighty deaf mutes in the state, many of whom were young enough to attend a school; and his Christian benevolence prompted the aspiration and belief that it was not the "will of our Father who is in heaven, that one of these little ones should perish." With these data and aims before him, and with such information as he could gather as to the progress and results of deaf-mute instruction in Europe, he addressed himself to the Christian benevolence and kind feelings of his neighbors and friends, for their coöperation. A meeting was accordingly held at his house, on the thirteenth of April, 1815, composed

* We shall give, in a subsequent number of the *Journal*, a brief biographical sketch of Alice Cogswell, whose name is so indissolubly connected with the history of deaf-mute instruction in America.

† Mrs. Sigourney has given an interesting sketch of Alice, in her interesting volume entitled "My Pupils," published by Carter, New York, 1853.

(as appears from a journal kept by Mr. Gallaudet) of Mason F. Cogswell, M. D., Ward Woodbridge, Esq., Daniel Wadsworth, Esq., Henry Hudson, Esq., Hon. Nathaniel Terry, John Caldwell, Esq., Daniel Buck, Esq., Joseph Battel, Esq. (of Norfolk), the Rev. Nathan Strong, D. D., and Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet. The meeting was opened with the invocation of the Divine blessing on their undertaking, by Rev. Dr. Strong, and after a full discussion of the practicability of sending some suitable person to Europe, to acquire the art of instructing the deaf and dumb, Dr. Cogswell and Mr. Woodbridge* were appointed a committee to obtain subscriptions for the purpose, and ascertain the name of a suitable person who would consent to go.

To Mr. Gallaudet, the eyes of all interested in the object were instinctively turned, as the one person, qualified beyond all others, by his manners, talents, attainments, and Christian spirit, to engage in this mission. After much prayerful consideration of the subject, and not till he had failed to enlist the agency of others in this pioneer work of benevolence, on the twentieth of April, 1815, he informed Dr. Cogswell and Mr. Woodbridge "that he would visit Europe for the sake of qualifying himself to become a teacher of the deaf and dumb in this country." On the twentieth of May following, he sailed for New York, in the prosecution of his benevolent object.

Encountering unexpected delays in obtaining admission as a pupil into the London Asylum, then under the care of Joseph Watson, LL. D., he had made arrangements to spend a year in the institution at Edinburgh, which was also likely to be thwarted, when he opportunely gained an introduction to the Abbé Sicard, who was at that time on a visit to London for the purpose of giving a course of lectures explanatory of his method of teaching the deaf and dumb, accompanied by Massieu and Clerc, his favorite pupils and assistants. By this benevolent man, one of the greatest benefactors of the deaf mute, Mr. Gallaudet was cordially received, and invited to visit Paris, where every facility would be extended to him without fee, or hindrance of any kind. He accordingly repaired to Paris, where he devoted himself assiduously to the study of deaf-mute instruction until July, 1816,

* Mr. Woodbridge was then in the prime of life, and in the front rank of the mercantile interest of Hartford. By his personal solicitation, and the example of his own liberal subscription, he succeeded in the course of one day in obtaining the pledge of a sufficient sum to meet the expense of the enterprise, and, it is safe to say, that no other business transaction of his life is now associated with such a train of pleasant recollections. He, and Daniel Buck, Esq., are now [1856] the only survivors of that first voluntary association, in whose prayers, pecuniary contributions, and personal exertions, the American Asylum had its origin. Foremost on the list of subscribers in amount, stands the name of Daniel Wadsworth, who gave, to the community in which he lived, through a long life, a beautiful example of the true uses of wealth, by its judicious expenditure under his own personal inspection, for the promotion of Christian, benevolent, patriotic, and literary purposes.

when he had the happiness of embarking for America with Mr. Laurent Clerc, a highly educated deaf mute, one of the ablest pupils of Sicard, and one of the best teachers of the Paris Institution, — an event* of scarcely less importance to the immediate success of the American Asylum, than Mr. Gallaudet's own consent to visit Europe in its behalf.

After two years of preparation, spent in organizing an association based on the principle of permanency, raising funds, training and procuring teachers, and making its objects known through the press, personal interviews, and public addresses, the Asylum was opened with a class of seven pupils, on Wednesday, the fifteenth of April, 1817, in the south part of the building now occupied by the City Hotel, in Hartford. On the Sunday evening following, — April 20th, — just two years after he had signified his assent to devote himself to this enterprise, Mr. Gallaudet delivered a discourse in the Centre Congregational Church, before a crowded audience, and in the presence of his interesting group of seven pupils, from the words of Isaiah : — "Then the eyes of the blind shall be opened, and the ears of the deaf unstopped. Then shall the lame man leap as a hart, and the tongue of the dumb sing; for, in the wilderness, waters shall break out, and streams in the desert" — in which he set forth the advantages likely to arise from the establishment of the Asylum, and the motives which should inspire those who are interested in its welfare with renewed zeal and the hopes of ultimate success. On rising from a fresh perusal of this admirable discourse, written in such pure, polished, and idiomatic English, and breathing so much of the spirit of Him, by whose miraculous agency the ears of the deaf were opened, and the tongue of the dumb loosened; and contrasting that group of seven pupils, ignorant, isolated, and unhappy, and the moral desert in which the deaf mute then dwelt, with the thousands of the same class who have since been instructed, and the thousand homes which have since

* How touchingly did Mr. Gallaudet refer to that event in his address at the ever-memorable gathering of the deaf and dumb at Hartford, thirty-four years afterwards : — "What should I have accomplished, if the same kind Providence had not enabled me to bring back from France, his native land, one whom we still rejoice to see among us, himself a deaf mute, intelligent and accomplished, trained under the distinguished Sicard, at that time teaching the highest class in the Paris Institution, to be my coadjutor here at home; to excite a still deeper interest in the object to which he came to devote his talents and efforts; to assist in collecting those funds which were absolutely essential for the very commencement of the operations of the Asylum; to be my first, and, for a time, only fellow-laborer in the course of instruction, and then to render necessary and most efficient aid in preparing for their work the additional teachers who were needed."

Although he came to a land of strangers, he now (1856) finds himself, as the years pass lightly over him, near his children and grand-children, amid a circle of appreciating friends and grateful pupils, who will ever shower blessings on him for his many sacrifices and labors in their behalf.

been cheered and blessed, and all the good, direct and indirect, to the cause of Christian philanthropy which has flowed out of these small beginnings, we seem almost to stand at the well-spring of that river of life, seen in the vision of the prophet, which, flowing out from beneath the sanctuary, and on the right hand of the altar, into the wilderness, a little rill that could be stepped over, widened and deepened in its progress, till it became a mighty stream,—a stream which could not be passed, imparting life wherever it came, and nourishing all along its banks, trees, whose fruit was for meat, and whose leaves for medicine.

From time to time, in the course of every year, before the legislatures of the several New England States, in the halls of Congress, in all of the large cities of the Northern and Middle States, Mr. Gallaudet, accompanied and assisted by Mr. Clerc, and, not unfrequently, by a class of pupils, continued to present and advocate the claims of the deaf mute on the benevolent regards of individuals and public bodies. The way was thus prepared for that liberality which has since marked the legislation of the country, by which the education of the deaf and dumb has become part of the public policy of all the older, and most of the new States.

It will not be necessary to follow any further in detail Mr. Gallaudet's labors in connection with the American Asylum, and for the benefit of the deaf and dumb. These labors were eminently judicious and successful; and although in an undertaking of such magnitude there are many agencies and many laborers, and all those who work at the foundation, or even beyond that, who gather slowly the material and the laborers, and those who work on the top stone, or the ornaments, perform a necessary and an honorable part, and all deserve to be remembered with gratitude, still it is instinctively and universally felt that the directing mind in this great enterprise,—in its inception, its gradual maturing, and ultimate organization,—is that of THOMAS HOPKINS GALLAUDET. Of this we are sure, that he worked incessantly and wisely, and out to the full circumference of his duty and ability. His labors and anxieties, necessarily attendant on such an undertaking,—the striking out of new plans and methods, the reconciliation of differing views in different departments of authority and instruction, until the best working plan was in successful operation,—were too much for a temperament naturally so excitable as his, and for a constitution never robust. He accordingly felt it necessary to resign his place as Principal of the American Asylum in 1830, although he never ceased to take an active interest as director in its affairs, and was always consulted, up to his last illness, with filial confidence and affection, by the instructors and directors of the institution.

The repose from constant occupation in the instruction and oversight of the affairs of the Asylum which his resignation afforded him, was devoted by Mr. Gallaudet to the prosecution of literary pursuits, as congenial to his tastes and early habits, and as a means of supporting his family. He was distinguished, while in college, for his facility and felicity in English composition; and the volume of Discourses, preached by him in the chapel of the Oratoire, while studying in Paris, and published in 1817, in which the purity at once of his literary taste and Christian character is displayed, would alone entitle him to a prominent place among the worthies of the American pulpit. In 1831, he published the "Child's Book on the Soul," which exhibits his remarkable tact in bringing the most abstract subject within the grasp of the feeblest and youngest mind. This little volume has gone through a large number of editions, in this country and in England, and has been translated into the French, Spanish, German, and Italian languages. This publication was followed by several others of the same character, and which were widely read. His "Mother's Primer" has lightened the task of infantile instruction in many homes and many schools; and his "Defining Dictionary," and "Practical Spelling-Book," composed in connection with Rev. Horace Hooker, rigidly and perseveringly followed, are invaluable guides to teacher and pupil to a practical knowledge of the meaning and use of our language in composition and conversation. At the urgent request of the American Tract Society, he commenced, in 1833, the publication of a series of volumes under the general title of "Scripture Biography," which was incomplete at the time of his death, but which, as far as published, are to be found in most of the Sunday School and Juvenile Libraries of our country. In 1835, he published the first part of a work, with the title of "The Every-Day Christian," in which he endeavors to delineate certain traits of Christian character, and to lead his readers to the consideration of certain every-day duties, which are in danger of being overlooked amid the occupations and pursuits of this world. In this volume he unfolds, at some length, his own ideal of a Christian life, as exhibited in the family state, and in the faithful and conscientious performance of a class of duties which, although unseen, are essential parts of the vast moral machinery which the Almighty Hand is wielding for the accomplishment of the designs of Infinite Wisdom and Goodness. The plan of the work was probably suggested by a movement on the part of many public-spirited and benevolent citizens of Hartford, in the winter of 1834-35, to promote the cause of moral reform among the youth of that city. The prosecution of the object, to Mr. Gallaudet's mind, was accompanied with too much denunciation of amusements, innocent in

themselves, and objectionable only when pursued too far, and under circumstances calculated to lead to excessive indulgence, and to vicious associations and associates. His mode of keeping young people out of places of idle and corrupting resort, as set forth in a public address at that time, and more elaborately in this little volume, is to make home pleasant and attractive, — to cultivate the taste and the habits of reading, of fireside amusements and social intercourse — and to make home attractive not only to the children of the family, but to clerks and apprentices, who may be in the employment or under the guardianship of the head of the family.

Valuable as these publications are, both in the matter and manner of their execution, and popular as many of them have been and still are, they are only the indications of what he might have accomplished in this department of authorship, if he had enjoyed firmer health and more leisure for meditation and study. It is safe to say that Mr. Gallaudet never rose in the morning without having in his mind or on his hands some extra duty of philanthropy to perform, — something beyond what attached to him from his official or regular engagements. His assistance was asked whenever an appeal was to be made to the public, in behalf of a benevolent or religious object, which required the exercise of a cultivated intellect, the impulses of a benevolent heart, and the personal influence of a character confessedly above all political and sectarian principles.

Although through his whole life a practical educator and teacher, it was during this period that he distinguished himself as the friend, and efficient promoter by pen and voice, of educational improvement. On all movements in behalf of general education, in institutions and methods, he formed his own opinions with his usual caution, and maintained them with courtesy and firmness. While he acknowledged the fact of mutual instruction in the family and in life, which lies at the foundation of Bell's and Lancaster's systems of monitorial instruction, as an educational principle of universal application in schools, and always advocated and practised the employment of older children in the family, and of the older and more advanced pupils in the school, in the work of instructing and governing the younger and least advanced, he never countenanced for a moment the idea which swept over our country from 1820 to 1830, that monitors, young and inexperienced in instruction and life, could ever supply the place, in schools, of professionally trained teachers of mature age, thorough mental discipline, and high moral character.

Although he always advocated, and applied in his own family and family school, the principles of infant education, commencing with the child while in the arms of the mother and the lap of the father,

he kept aloof from the efforts which were so generally put forth in our larger cities, from 1826 to 1832, for the establishment of infant schools, as then understood and conducted. He sympathized deeply in the movement for the establishment of manual labor schools from 1832 to 1838, and was the constant advocate of more thorough physical education in institutions of every grade, from the family to the professional school. Although not strictly the first to present to the people of Connecticut and of New England the necessity of providing special institutions for the professional training of young men and young women for the office of teaching, his "Letters of a Father," published in the Connecticut Observer in 1825, and afterward circulated in a pamphlet, were among the earliest and most effective publications on the subject.

He was among the most earnest to call attention, in conversation, through the press, and in educational meetings, to the whole subject of female education, and especially to the more extensive employment of females as teachers. His hopes for the regeneration of society, and especially for the infusion of a more refined culture in manners and morals into the family, and especially into common schools, rested on the influence of pious and educated women as mothers and teachers. He was early interested in the establishment of the Hartford Female Seminary, and delivered an address in 1827 in its behalf, which was published. He was connected with the general supervision of the Seminary, and with its instruction as lecturer on composition and moral philosophy, in 1833.

Although, in the absence of such common schools as could meet his views of the wants of his own children, especially in all that regards moral and religious culture, and personal habits and manners, he for years established a small family school for the education of his own children, and the children of his immediate friends, he was ever the advocate of the most liberal appropriation, and of the most complete organization, instruction and discipline of public or common schools, — and he did much, by pen and voice, to advocate their improvement. As has already been stated, so early as 1825, he fixed for the first time the attention of educators, and to some extent of the public, on the source of all radical and extensive improvement of them and all schools, in the professional training of teachers. In 1827 he was an active member of the Connecticut Society for the Improvement of Common Schools, of which Hon. Roger Minot Sherman was President, and the Rev. Horace Hooker, and the Rev. Thomas Robbins, D. D., the real laborers, — one of the first, if not the first society of the kind in this country. He was a member of the committee of arrangements in the teachers' convention held in Hartford, in Octo-

ber, 1830, of which Noah Webster, LL. D., was President. The discussions in that convention, of such topics as the influence of the school fund of Connecticut as the main reliance of the people for the support of common schools, in which Dr. Humphrey, then President of Amherst College, a native of the State, and a teacher for many years in her district schools, took an active part; — the proper construction of school-houses, on which subject Dr. William A. Alcott read a paper, which was afterward published as a prize essay by the American Institute of Instruction, and circulated all over the country; — the qualifications of teachers, which was ably presented in a lecture by Rev. Gustavus Davis, — had a powerful influence on the cause of educational improvement throughout New England. In 1833 he wrote a little tract, entitled "Public Schools Public Blessings," which was published by the New York Public School Society for general circulation in the city of New York, at a time when an effort was made, which proved successful, to enlarge the operations of that society.

In 1838, he was the person, and the only person, had in view, to fill the office of Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools in Connecticut, when the bill was drafted for a public act "to provide for the better supervision of common schools" in Connecticut. The post was urged on his acceptance, with the offer and guaranty by individuals of an addition of one third to the salary paid by the State. He declined, mainly from his unwillingness to absent himself as much from his family as the plan of operations contemplated, and also "because of the apathy, as to the importance of this cause, which he had many reasons to know weighed not only on the public mind generally, but on the minds and hearts of good men, and even Christians, who take an active and liberal part in other moral and religious movements. To break up this apathy, requires more of youthful strength and enthusiasm than can be found in an invalid and a man of fifty years of age." In a conversation held with the individual who afterward entered on this field of labor, through his earnest solicitations, Mr. Gallaudet anticipated the difficulties which that enterprise afterward encountered, and which he feared would "probably not entirely defeat, but must inevitably postpone its success. But never mind; the cause is worth laboring and suffering for; and enter on your work with a manly trust that the people will yet see its transcendent importance to them and their children to the latest posterity, and that God will bless an enterprise fraught with so much of good to every plan of local benevolence." In company with the Secretary, he visited every county in the State in 1838, and addressed conventions of teachers, school officers and

parents. He took part in the course of instruction of the first normal class, or teachers' institute,* held in this country, in 1839, and again in a similar institute in 1840. He appeared before the Joint Committee of Education in the General Assembly, on several occasions when appropriations for a normal school were asked for. He was one of the lecturers in the teachers' convention held in Hartford in 1846, — and had the gratification of welcoming to the State Normal School at New Britain, in 1850, the first class of pupil teachers, and of taking part in their instruction. He was to have delivered a public address before one of the literary societies in that institution, called, in gratitude for his early and constant advocacy of normal schools, after his name, at the first anniversary of the State Normal School in September, 1851.

Mr. Gallaudet was a contributor at different times to the "Annals of Education," while under the charge of William C. Woodbridge, and to the "Connecticut Common School Journal" from 1838 to 1842. In 1839 he edited an American edition of "Principles of Teaching, by Henry Dunn, Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society, London," under the title of "Schoolmaster's Manual" — a truly valuable work, which has gone through many editions in England.

He took an active interest in the lyceum movement, from 1826 to 1840, — and particularly in the Goodrich Association, in 1831, under whose auspices the first course of popular lectures was delivered in Connecticut, — and in the proceedings of the American Lyceum, at its annual meeting in Hartford, in 1838, out of which originated the Hartford Young Men's Institute in the same year. In fine, he sympathized with, and participated, so far as his health and other engagements would allow, in every movement which aimed to elevate, purify and bless society through a wide-spread system of popular education.

In 1837, the county of Hartford, through the exertions mainly of Alfred Smith, Esq., erected a prison, on a plan which admitted of a classification of the prisoners, of their entire separation at night, of their employment in labor under constant supervision by day, and of their receiving appropriate moral and religious instruction. Mr. Gallaudet sympathized warmly with this movement, and in the absence of any means at the disposal of the county commissioners to employ the services of a chaplain and religious teacher, volunteered to discharge these duties without pay. He continued to perform religious service every Sabbath morning for eight years, and to visit the prison from time to time during each week, whenever he had reason to sup-

* An account of this Institute is published in the "Connecticut Common School Journal" for 1839.

pose his presence and prayers were particularly desired. In such labors of love to the criminal and neglected, unseen of men, and not known to twenty individuals in Hartford, the genuine philanthropy and Christian spirit of this good man found its pleasantest field of exercise.

On the sixth of June, 1838, Mr. Gallaudet became connected with the Connecticut Retreat for the Insane,* as chaplain, the duties of which office he continued to discharge, with exemplary fidelity and happy results, up to the day of his last illness.

Mr. Gallaudet entered on his new and interesting field of labor with his usual caution, preparation and thoroughness. No man could study his duties with a more prayerful and earnest spirit, — no one could improve more faithfully every opportunity to become intimately acquainted with the peculiarities of the mental and moral condition of each of the numerous inmates of the Retreat, — no one could aim to act in more perfect accordance with the counsels and directions of the superintending physician, — no one could select with more cautious deliberation the truths of religion which could be advantageously adapted to those who are laboring under mental or moral delusions, or more wisely present the motives which could aid in leading back such to a self-controlling and healthful condition of mind, or administer the consolation that would reach their real or supposed trials. The experience of each successive year furnished accumulating evidence of the usefulness of his labors, and the efficacy of kind moral treatment and a wise religious influence in the melioration and care of the insane. How beautifully did both his manner and success illustrate the wisdom of that law of kindness, which Dr. Todd impressed on the organization of this retreat as the all-pervading and plastic power of its moral discipline! O, how vividly did his mode of conversing with the insane bring back the image and language of that gifted man, — the first physician and founder of the Retreat! — how beautifully did the labors of both realize the language in which Whittier describes the true mode of dealing with the insane!

* Although the directors of this institution were the first to make an appointment of this character, not only for the purpose of daily family worship, and religious worship on the Sabbath for its officers and inmates, but as part of the system of moral treatment of insanity, — still the earliest movement in this direction was made by the trustees and superintendent of the State Lunatic Hospital at Worcester, Mass., in 1835.

To carry out his plans to perfection in this important department of the moral treatment of insanity, and especially in its early stages, Dr. Woodward felt the necessity of having the co-operation of a clergyman of cheerful and yet fervent piety, of large acquaintance with men, and of great versatility in modes of reaching the human mind and heart, and, above all, of that Christ-like spirit, "which, touched with a sense of human infirmity," should not expend itself in passive pity, but in wholesome and practical action for its relief. These qualities and qualifications he knew belonged, in a preëminent degree, to Mr. Gallaudet, and to him the chaplaincy in the institution at Worcester was tendered.

"Gentle as angels' ministry,
 The guiding hand of love should be,
 Which seeks again those chords to bind
 Which human woe hath rent apart, —
 To heal again the wounded mind,
 And bind anew the broken heart.
 The hand which tunes to harmony
 The cunning harp whose strings are riven
 Must move as light and quietly
 As that meek breath of summer heaven
 Which woke of old its melody ; —
 And kindness to the dim of soul,
 Whilst aught of rude and stern control
 The clouded heart can deeply feel,
 Is welcome as the odors fanned
 From some unseen and flowering land,
 Around the weary seaman's keel !"

Mr. Gallaudet's experience and observations among the insane were not lost upon him as an educator, but furnished him with facts and illustrations, by which, in his practical lectures to teachers, or conversation with parents and others interested in the cause of education, he shed light upon questions of deep and general interest connected with the philosophy of mind, and the reciprocal influence which the mind and body have upon each other, — the elements of moral science, — the education and training of children and youth, both in families and schools, — the preservation of health and reason, and the precautionary measures to be pursued to guard against the ills of the flesh and the spirit, and thus enabling every individual to prevent more than the most successful institution can ever mitigate or remove. To him the Retreat was not only the field of Christian benevolence, but a school of practical wisdom as an educator. In the conviction that a defective and faulty education, through the period of infancy and youth, is the most prolific cause of insanity, and that we must look to a well directed system of education, having for its object physical improvement, no less than moral and mental culture, as the best security against the attacks of this most formidable disease, he dwelt on the importance of paying attention to the physical condition and improvement of schools, to ventilation, to all the arrangements of the yard, to exercise, to frequent intervals of relaxation from study spent in the fresh air and in athletic sports, to the proportionate development of all the faculties, and, in all cases, to the avoidance of undue stimulants to study, especially with young children and with females.

In 1835-6 Mr. Gallaudet was induced by an association of which Mr. Richard Bigelow and Henry Hudson, Esq., of Hartford, were the active members, to visit the western states in reference to a plan of religious education for that section of the country, which, in coöperation with local and individual efforts, and in aid of existing schools,

contemplated a supply of well qualified teachers and the establishment, in each state, of at least one model institution of Christian education. The financial disasters which swept over the country soon after, crippled the means of several of the active promoters of the plan, and it was postponed, never to be renewed under the same auspices.*

Among the religious and benevolent enterprises in which he was particularly interested, may be mentioned the American Tract Society, of the Connecticut branch of which he was for many years president; the cause of universal peace, which he aimed to promote by disseminating information among all men, of the anti-Christian tendency of the war spirit, and by cultivating, in every way, the doctrines and graces of Christianity, commencing always with the individual, and spreading out through the family and the neighborhood, till they embraced the state and the world; and the civilization and Christianization of Africa by means of colonies of free, intelligent, and religious blacks from this country. To the American Colonization Society and its affiliated societies, he was in the habit of looking as the great instrumentality, under Providence, for elevating the condition of the African race in its own home, and wherever the cupidity of other races may have forcibly transplanted it. No man could be more kind and considerate in his attentions and efforts to improve the condition of this class of our population at home, and especially in providing them with the means of intellectual and religious improvement.

After living a life of practical usefulness, such as it is the privilege of but few good men to live, and yet such as every wise man at the time of his death, if he could live his life over again, would aspire to live, Mr. Gallaudet died as every good man would desire to die. Overtaken by sickness in the discharge of his duties at the Retreat, he retired to his own home and his chamber on the night of the twentieth of July, to go no more out, until borne by others to his last resting-place. His disease proved to be an aggravated form of dysentery, and so prolonged and so severe was the attack, that his constitution, never robust, and his strength, which was never vigorous, and which for the last twenty years had been husbanded only with extreme care, sank beneath it; and after forty-six wearisome days and nights, during most of which his mind was remarkably clear and active, and his faith undimmed, he died on the tenth of September, 1851, leaving to his widow and eight children, and the sorrowing community where he was best known, the inestimable legacy of his life and character, and the consoling lesson of his death.

* At a later period a somewhat similar enterprise was undertaken by Miss Catherine E. Beecher, to which Mr. Gallaudet ever gave his counsel and aid, in preparing the class of teachers who have, for the last eight years, assembled in Hartford for a course of preparatory instruction before going west.

In the bosom of his family,—watched over by the gentle eye of affection,—ministered to by children who would keep him yet a little longer from the sky,—the last offices of the sick-room sought by neighbors and friends, who would thus requite his kindness to them, and mark their appreciation of his worth,—without one gathering mist or shade on his hope of a blessed hereafter, secured (to use his own language) not by merits of his own, but by the redeeming grace of God,—he passed through his last tedious sickness, feeling the arm of his Saviour beneath him; and when his hour came, his spirit passed away so gently, that the precise moment was unmarked:

"They thought him dying when he slept,
And sleeping when he died.

"His soul to Him who gave it rose;
God led him to his long repose,
His glorious rest;
And though that Christian's sun has set,
Its light shall linger round us yet,
Bright radiant, blest."

Mr. Gallaudet was married, on the tenth of June, 1821, to Miss Sophia Fowler, of Guilford, a deaf mute, with whom his acquaintance commenced while she was a member of the first class of pupils instructed by him at the Asylum. Seldom has domestic life been blessed with so sweet an accord of temper, taste, and views, of family instruction and discipline, and by such a bright dower of clustering charities,—a triumphant testimony to the deaf mutes, of their inherent capability, properly instructed, to take their appropriate position of influence in the family state. In no one position did the distinguishing features of his mind and heart shine out more clearly than in his own home, and in the practical discharge of his domestic and social duties. Here his views, as a wise educator, were illustrated by beginning the work of parental instruction and example in the very arms of the mother, and in the lap of the father, while natural affection tempers authority with love, and filial fear with filial attachment and gratitude. Here he aimed to form habits, as well as principles of truth, temperance, honesty, justice, virtue, kindness, and industry. Here, by example and influence, by well-timed instruction, and judicious counsels, by a discipline uniform in its demands of strict obedience, yet tempered with parental fondness and familiarity, did he aim to fulfil the obligations which God had imposed on him as the head of a family; and in this preparatory sphere of instruction he had the personal and assiduous attention of Mrs. Gallaudet.

II. TESTIMONIAL AND MONUMENT

TO THOMAS HOPKINS GALLAUDET.

It was the rare fortune of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet not only to achieve a great and permanent work of beneficence in the institution of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, but to receive while living, the most touching evidences of filial respect and affection from the individuals and the class whom his deeds had blessed ; and, after his decease, to have had erected to his memory by them an appropriate and enduring monument of their gratitude, on the ground which had been the scene of his labors, and of their happiness.

The world has seldom witnessed a more novel and affecting spectacle than was exhibited in the Center Congregational Church in Hartford, on the 26th of September 1850, where a large number of the graduates of the institution assembled to testify, by the presentation of silver plate, their affectionate respect to their first teachers, Messrs. GALLAUDET and Clerc, as the chief immediate instruments of their own elevation in the scale of intelligence, usefulness, and happiness, and the primary agents in procuring all the practical blessings which education has given, and is still bestowing on the whole class of deaf-mutes in this country. Over four hundred of this unfortunate class were present,—probably the largest assemblage of the kind ever seen in the world,—with intelligent joy beaming from all their faces, and gratitude displayed in their animated and expressive language of signs. What a striking contrast to the little group of seven pupils, ignorant, lonely, and disconsolate, who gathered in the same place a little more than thirty-four years before, at the first formal opening of the Asylum, on the 15th of April, 1817! Surely, peace and benevolence have their victories no less than war. Of a truth, 'the wilderness and solitary places have been made glad by the breaking out of living waters, and the desert rejoiceth and blossoms as the rose,—the ransomed of the Lord have returned with songs and everlasting joy upon their head.'

The testimonial, which originated with Mr. Thomas Brown of New Hampshire, one of the earliest and most intelligent of the pupils of

* The material, and much of the language of this article are drawn from Barnard's Tribute to Gallaudet, and Prof. Rae's Account of the Monument, in the *Annals* for October, 1854. Vol. 1, No. 4-30.

the Asylum, who said in the graphic language of signs, "that his spirit could not rest until he had devised some method of giving expression to the grateful feeling which filled his heart," and was eagerly seized and made the common property of all the graduates and pupils of the Asylum, consisted of a massive silver pitcher for Mr. Gallaudet, and another, of the same size for Mr. Clerc,—each pitcher being accompanied by an appropriate salver.

Upon one side of the pitcher is an engraved scene, representing Mr. GALLAUDET's going to France in the year 1817, to induce Mr. CLERC to come to America to instruct the deaf and dumb. There are figures of the gentlemen, and ships and waves illustrating the passage across the ocean. The building of the Hartford institution is likewise represented. On the other side is seen a picture of the interior of the school; with teachers, and pupils, and apparatus. In front and between these scenes, is the head of the Abbé SICARD, of Paris, the instructor of Messrs. GALLAUDET and CLERC, and said to be a correct likeness. On the neck of the pitcher are chased the different coats of arms of all the New England states; and on the handle are representations of mute cupids, and also closed hands, indicating the sign of the mutes for the first letter of the alphabet.

The inscriptions are as follows. On the pitcher destined for Mr. GALLAUDET, was engraved:—

PRESENTED TO
REV. THOMAS H. GALLAUDET,
FIRST PRINCIPAL OF THE AMERICAN ASYLUM,
AS A TOKEN OF GRATEFUL RESPECT,
BY THE DEAF MUTES OF NEW ENGLAND.
MOVED BY COMPASSION FOR THE UNFORTUNATE DEAF AND DUMB
OF HIS COUNTRY, HE DEVOTED HIMSELF TO THEIR
WELFARE, AND PROCURED FOR THEM THE
BLESSINGS OF EDUCATION.
HARTFORD, CONN., SEPT. 26TH, 1850.

On the salver:—

TO REV. THOMAS H. GALLAUDET,
FROM HIS FRIENDS, THE DEAF MUTES OF NEW ENGLAND.
HARTFORD, CONN., SEPT. 26TH, 1850.

The addresses and other exercises on the occasion of presenting these testimonials were intensely interesting. Well might Mr. Gallaudet say that he should think of that day "as standing out with a strong and memorable prominence among the days of his earthly pilgrimage, and of his former pupils with a father's love." And that love was reciprocated by his pupils with truly filial respect and affection, which was exhibited in a signal manner on his decease.

He had ever been regarded by them as their best friend and benefactor, and when his death was announced, a sadness and gloom pervaded their whole community, such as is felt when a beloved father dies. They were not satisfied with the ordinary badges of mourning and the usual testimonials of respect for their departed preceptor and guide. Their feelings prompted them to perpetuate his memory, and their own sense of his worth, in a more enduring and costly monument. In this work of gratitude and affection their hearts were united as the heart of one man, and their hands put to it bearing offerings for its accomplishment, which if not commensurate with their zeal and interest, were yet limited only by their ability to do and to give. As the plan and design were wholly their own, which they felt unwilling to have modified even by more gifted minds and cultivated tastes, so the embodiment of them was effected by their unaided contributions; not a dollar having been received from any hearing and speaking person.

The credit of the general plan of the structure is due to Mr. Albert Newsam, of Philadelphia, a former pupil of the Pennsylvania Institution, and one of the most skillful engravers and lithographers in the United States. The sculptured group on the south panel was designed by Mr. John Carlin, of New York, a deaf mute artist of growing skill and reputation. The execution of the work, after having been approved by a committee of the Gallaudet Monument Association, composed exclusively of deaf mutes, and formed for this special purpose, was committed to Mr. James G. Batterson, of Hartford, and his sculptor, Mr. Argenti.

Both in design and execution, this is undoubtedly one of the most beautiful monuments of its kind, in the United States; worthy of the noble name which it is raised to honor. Its whole cost was about *two thousand and five hundred* dollars; which was contributed exclusively by the deaf and dumb, over six hundred being able to say that, "I helped to bring into being that beautiful work of art, and of gratitude."

The monument stands in the grounds of the American Asylum, nearly in front of the center building, and consists of, first, a *platform* of Quincy granite, six feet ten inches square, and ten inches thick—the *plinth* is also of granite, six feet square and one foot thick—the marble *base* is five feet three inches square, and eighteen inches thick, richly moulded—the *die* consists of four panels; the south one containing a bas-relief, which constitutes altogether the most attractive feature of the monument.

Mr. Gallaudet is represented in the act of teaching little children

the manual alphabet. Three children are presented, two boys and one girl, and the execution of their faces and forms is very beautiful. The



artist has succeeded remarkably well in transferring to the stone the features of Mr. Gallaudet, and the expression of his countenance.

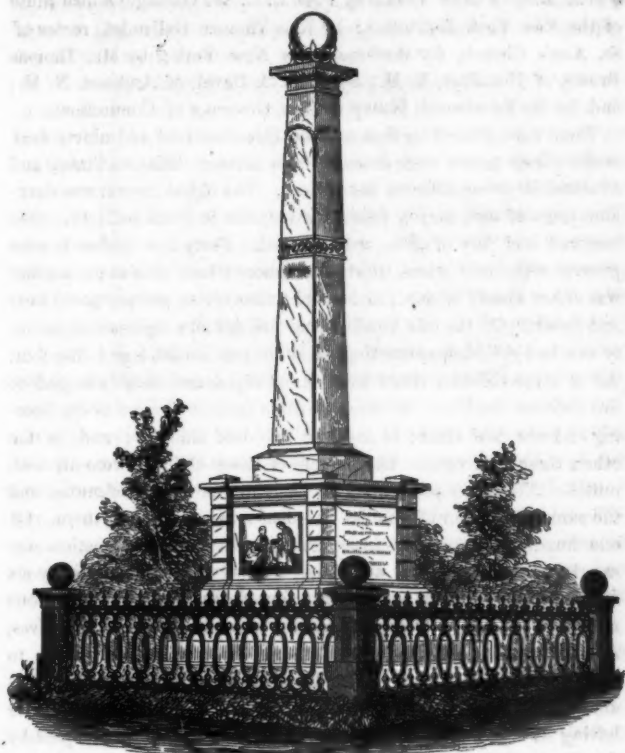
On the north panel, the name GALLAUDET, in the letters of the manual alphabet, is inscribed in bas-relief. On the east panel is the following inscription:—

THOMAS HOPKINS GALLAUDET, LL. D.,
BORN IN PHILADELPHIA,
DECEMBER 10, 1787,
DIED IN HARTFORD,
SEPTEMBER 10, 1851,
AGED SIXTY-FOUR YEARS.

And, on the west panel, is the following:—

ERECTED TO THE MEMORY OF
REV. THOMAS HOPKINS GALLAUDET, LL. D.,
BY THE DEAF AND DUMB
OF THE UNITED STATES,
AS A TESTIMONIAL
OF PROFOUND GRATITUDE
TO THEIR
EARLIEST AND DEAREST FRIEND
AND BENEFACTOR.

The *die* is surmounted by a *cap*, upon which rests the *base* of the *column*, which is two feet six inches square, the column rising to the height of eleven feet. Upon the south side of the column, surrounded by *radii*, is the Syriac word "Ephphatha,"—that is, "be opened;" which was spoken by our Saviour when he caused the dumb to speak, and the blind to see. The *band* which connects the two blocks of the



main column, is encircled with a wreath of ivy, the type of immortality; and the column itself is crowned with an ornate *capital*, surmounted by a *globe*. The whole height of the monument is twenty feet and six inches. It is inclosed with a handsome iron fence, with granite posts.

The celebration of the completion of the Gallaudet Monument took place on the 26th of September, 1854, by appropriate exercises and addresses. The principal address was by Prof. Laurent Clerc, which embraced a sketch of the life, services, and character of Mr. Gallaudet, and a history and account of the monument. This was followed by remarks from the Mayor of the City of Hartford, Hon. Henry C. Deming, who married a daughter of Prof. Clerc; by Mr. John Carlin,

a deaf mute of New York; by Prof. C. C. W. Gamage, a deaf mute of the New York Institution; by Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, rector of St. Ann's Church, for deaf-mutes, in New York; by Mr. Thomas Brown, of Henniker, N. H.; by John O. David, of Amherst, N. H.; and, by his Excellency, Henry Dutton, Governor of Connecticut.

There were present on that occasion three hundred and ninety deaf-mutes whose names were entered, from sixteen different States, and educated in seven different Institutions. The oldest person was sixty-nine years of age, having finished his studies in Paris in 1805. One hundred and fifty of them were married. Forty-five husbands were present with their wives, thirty-one others whose deaf-mute partner was either absent or dead, and twenty-nine whose partner could hear and speak. Of the one hundred and five families represented, seventy-one had children, amounting in all to one hundred and fifty-four. All of these children could hear except eight, and they belonged to five different families. In three of these families there was one hearing and one deaf child; in another, two deaf children; and, in the other, three deaf ones. The parents of these children were all deaf-mutes. About five per cent. of all the children were deaf-mutes, and the same proportion of families had deaf-mute children in them. Of one hundred and ninety-three men present whose occupation was ascertained, one hundred and thirty-five were mechanics, thirty-six farmers, eight teachers, seven artists, four clerks, two laborers and one merchant. From their appearance, the account given of themselves, and information obtained from others, there was good reason to believe that they were supporting themselves and families in a respectable and comfortable manner. The Governor of Connecticut, after having surveyed the assembly from the elevated platform occupied by the orator of the day, said in a few closing remarks, that he had rarely addressed an audience of equal size, exhibiting the appearance of superior intelligence and respectability. The meeting will long be remembered by them as a bright day in their calendar. The joyous recognition of old friends after a long separation; the renewal of early friendships; the interchange of sympathy at the recital of past sorrows and trials, of congratulation upon the detail of success and good fortune; and especially the satisfaction expressed and felt by all at seeing the great desire of their hearts so happily accomplished, conspired to make the occasion one of surpassing interest, and one which they will never cease to call up among the bright visions of the past.

Well may the Directors of the Asylum conclude their Thirty-ninth Annual Report, after noticing the above assemblage, and the prosperity of the Asylum, with the following reflections:—

We cannot forbear speaking of the progress of this branch of benevolent effort, since its introduction into this country, thirty-eight years since, by Mr. Gallaudet. Previous to that time, there was not an educated deaf mute in America; now, we rarely meet with one uneducated. Then, there was not an institution for the deaf and dumb in the whole of the United States; now, they are widely diffused over every section of the country. The little school opened in Hartford, in 1817, under much concern and doubt as to its receiving patronage and support, and with the full conviction that no other similar establishment would be needed, is now firmly seated upon a broad foundation; liberally endowed, patronized by the Legislatures of the six New England States, with more than two hundred pupils, and is the mother of fifteen hopeful daughters, who, together, are at this time dispensing the blessings of a Christian education to more than twelve hundred deaf mutes. Several thousands have been sent out from these institutions, more or less thoroughly educated, who are supporting themselves comfortably by their own efforts, and are maintaining respectable positions in society; while, of them all, very few indeed can be found among the degraded and the vicious. This great and good work has, by the blessing of a gracious Providence, been effected within the time of a single generation.

As an appropriate and enduring monument of Mr. Gallaudet's far-reaching labors, we append Plans and Descriptions of the Building erected for the accommodation of the American Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, furnished by Rev. William W. Turner, the present Principal, together with a Table, exhibiting, in one view, the growth and present condition of all the institutions of this character in the United States. We are indebted for this table to Prof. Samuel W. Porter, editor of the American Annals for the Deaf and Dumb.

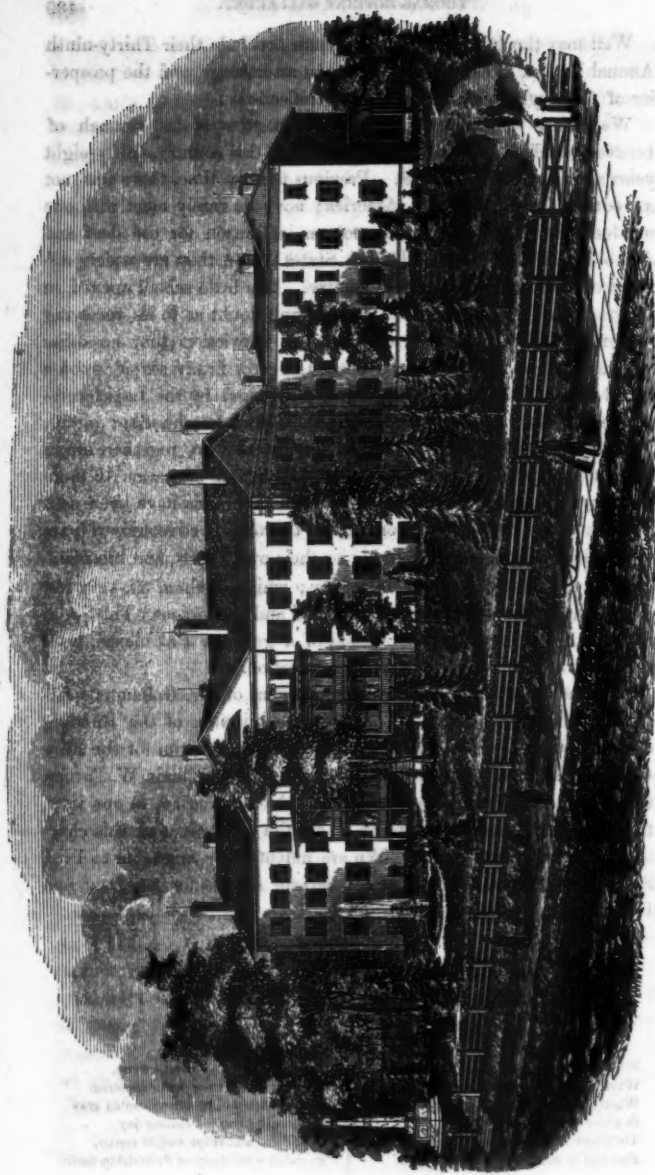
DIRGE.

Paraphrase of COLLINS' "How sleep the brave?"

BY REV. THOMAS H. GALLAUDET, LL. D.

How sleep the good! who sink to rest,
With their Redeemer's favor blest:
When dawns the day, by seers of old,
In sacred prophecy foretold,
They then shall burst their humble sod,
And rise to meet their Saviour—God.

To seats of bliss by angel-tongue,
With rapture is their welcome sung,
And, at their tomb, when evening gray
Hallows the hour of closing day,
Shall Faith and Hope awhile repair,
To dwell with weeping Friendship there.



AMERICAN ASYLUM FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB, HARTFORD, CT.

PLANS AND DESCRIPTION OF THE AMERICAN ASYLUM FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB.

The Asylum for the education of the Deaf and Dumb, situated in the western part of the city of Hartford, was founded in the year 1817. For the first four years its pupils were lodged and taught in hired rooms on Main and Prospect streets. The centre building in this view was erected on grounds, purchased in July, 1818, at a cost of about \$24,000. It is 130 feet long by 53 wide, and was designed to accommodate 150 persons. The Superintendent with his family, and the pupils, fifty-four in number, removed into it in April 1821. At that time the basement was unfinished, and the attic was not occupied. Changes in the interior arrangements of the building were made from time to time as the increasing number of pupils required; the basement was finished and fitted up as a kitchen, wash-room, and dining-room, in 1826, at an expense of \$1,823.

For some years there was no mechanical department in the Institution, though the need of one was understood almost from the beginning. In 1823, two neat and commodious workshops of brick were erected in the rear of the main edifice, and at some distance from it at a cost of \$1,011. In these were employed a shoemaker, a cooper, a cabinet maker, and a cutler to instruct such of the boys as were of suitable age, in their respective trades. In 1825 the workshops were enlarged to accommodate all those of the pupils who wished to engage in mechanical labor. This improvement cost 745 dollars. The next addition to the buildings of the Asylum was that of a kitchen and dining room put up in 1833 in the rear, and adjoining to the main building, as seen on the ground plan. It was 56 feet long when first built, 32 feet wide, and two stories high. The cost was about \$3,500. In 1846 this building was lengthened 17 feet, for which was paid the sum of \$600, and in 1850 it was raised another story, and a lodging room for the girls was made over the dining room, connected with their sleeping rooms in the principal edifice. This last improvement cost about \$2,500.

The number of pupils had so increased in 1844, that they could not be comfortably disposed of in the buildings then belonging to the Institution. It was thought best to erect a building which should contain all the school-rooms and the chapel. The west wing was accordingly constructed at an expense of \$8000. It is of brick, three stories high, 60 feet long, and 50 feet wide, containing nine school-rooms, a chapel, and a museum. Removing the school-rooms from the main building, made important changes in its interior arrangements necessary. These were effected, and the building thoroughly repaired. Since then no change has been made in these arrangements.

In 1849 one of the workshops was taken down and a much larger and better one was built in its place. It was two stories high, 115 feet long, by 30 feet wide. A part of the upper story was fitted up for a tailor's shop. The remainder, with the whole of the first story, was arranged for cabinet making.

The verandah, as seen in the front elevation was constructed in the year 1852, and cost \$943.

In order to separate the quite young pupils from the older ones, and to accommodate the entire number, over 200 at that time, the east or right wing was erected at a cost of about \$15,500. To make room for this addition, the old Scarborough mansion-house which was on the ground when it was purchased, and which had been occupied by the Principal for many years, was torn down. The new wing is 70 feet long by 53 feet wide, and contains rooms for the family of the Principal, for the female teachers and an assistant matron; lodging-rooms, sitting-rooms, and school-rooms for the younger pupils, and several finished rooms in the basement, not yet occupied. Though the buildings were erected at different times as they were needed, not in conformity with any original plan, still they present a very good appearance, and afford as many conveniences as will be found in public institutions generally. They are warmed by ten hot air furnaces, are well lighted with gas; and in addition to wells and cisterns, have water forced into the attic story by means of hydraulic-rams. The present buildings will accommodate about 250 pupils.

The American Asylum has a permanent fund of \$250,000, realized out of the grant of a township of land by the Congress of the United States in 1819. The institution is open to pupils from all parts of the United States.



Fig. 3. SECOND FLOOR.

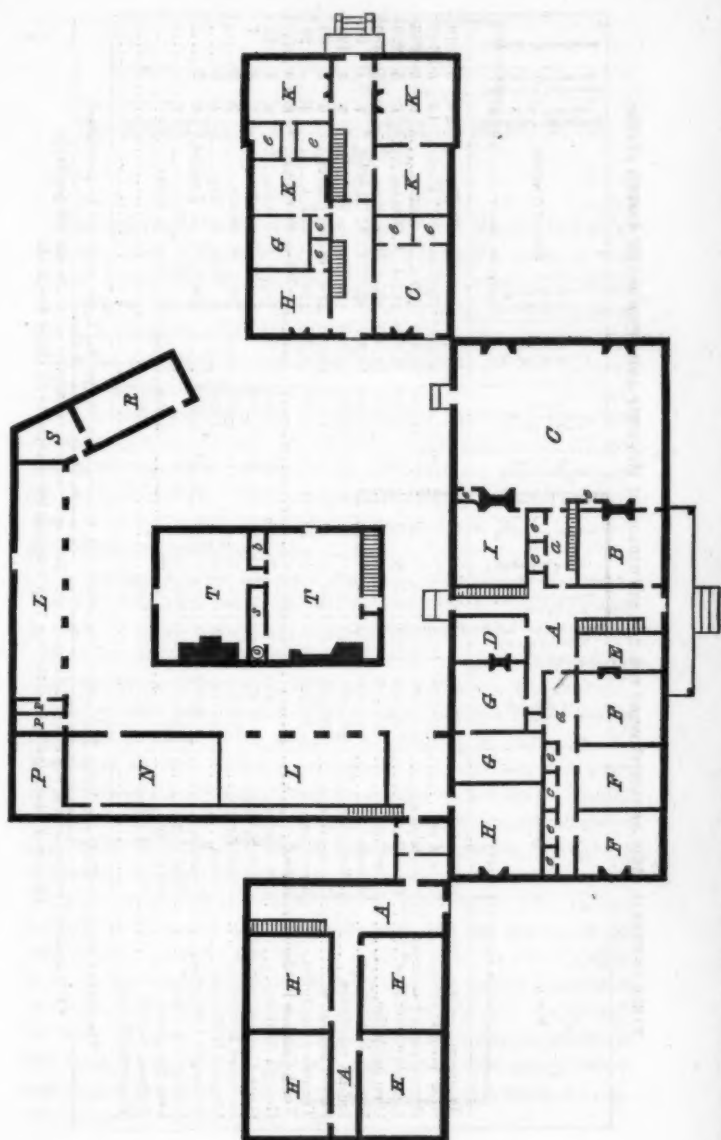


TABLE.—GENERAL VIEW OF INSTITUTIONS FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Location.	Cost of Buildings and Grounds.	Date of Opening.	Date of Latest Information.	Number of Pupils.	Number of Males.	Number of Females.	Number of Pupils Received from Seaside.	Annual Current Expenses.	Charges to Paying Pupils.	Names of Principals.	Number of Instructors, Including Principal.	Number of Instructors who are Deaf-mutes.	Number of Graduates.
American Asylum,	Hartford,	\$65,000	1817	1855	217	117	100	190	\$16,312	\$32,500	Wm. W. Turner, ..	14	5	1,019
New York Institution,	New York,	400,000*	1818	1854	279	157	122	239	45,000	50,000	Harvey P. Post, ..	14	6	1,142
Pennsylvania Institution,	Philadelphia,	105,000	1820	1855	155	83	72	136	21,106	25,000	A. B. Hutton,	9	3	686
Kentucky Institution,	Danville,	60,000	1823	1855	81	41	40	70	9,000	9,500	J. A. Jacobs,	6	3	250
Ohio Institution,	Columbus,	25,000	1829	1855	148	75	73	147	15,000	19,000	Collins Stone,	9	3	466
Virginia Institution,*	Staunton,	65,000	1839	1853	66	36	30	13	13,333	14,000	J. C. M. Merrill, ..	6	4	98
Indiana Institution,	Indianapolis,	100,000	1843	1855	151	90	61	140	20,000	20,800	Thomas McIntire, ..	9	3	190
Illinois Institution,	Jacksonville,	60,000	1846	1854	99	59	40	88	11,000	12,000	Thomas Officer, ...	6	2	89
Tennessee Institution,	Knoxville,	30,450	1845	1855	60	29	31	59	9,000	9,300	H. S. Gillet,	4	2	29
North Carolina Institution,	Raleigh,	6,000	1845	1850	45	21	24	34	7,000	7,783	Wm. D. Cooke,	3	2	...
Georgia Asylum,	Cave Spring,	6,000	1849	1854	39	21	18	34	5,000	5,000	O. P. Fanning,	2	1	25
South Carolina Institution,	Cedar Spring,	6,000	1849	1854	30	15	15	26	9,500	9,500	N. P. Walker,	5	3	7
Louisiana Institution,*	Baton Rouge,	198,000	1852	1855	40	13,000	...	J. S. Brown,	3	2	...
Missouri Institution,	Fulton,	36,000	1853	1856	69	Wm. D. Kerr,	4	2	...
Wisconsin Institution,	Delavan,	9,000	1853	1855	34	25	9	33	6,000	...	Louis H. Jenkins, ..	4	3	...
Michigan Asylum,*	Flint,	18,000	1854	1855	19	13	6	15	B. M. Fay,	2
Iowa Institution,	Iowa City,	1854	1855	20	5,000	...	Wm. E. James,
Alabama School,	Near Montgomery,	1852	1854	5,000
Mississippi School,

The data of the above Table are drawn from authentic sources; but, in some cases, the precise figure could not be ascertained.

* This Institution receives blind as well as deaf and dumb pupils. The number and other items given are for the deaf and dumb only.

† Sixteen of these beneficiaries of the New York Institution are supported by the City of New York.

III. MAGNITUDE OF THE EDUCATIONAL INTEREST OF THE UNITED STATES.

We commenced in the preceding number (for March) the publication of a series of Statistical Tables and Summaries, made up from official documents, for the purpose of bringing together, in a condensed form, the principal elements for estimating the magnitude of the Educational Interest of the American States, to the advancement of which the Journal of Education will be exclusively devoted.

In the former article we gave —

I. A table exhibiting the population and territory of the several American States; a population already amounting to 62,000,000, and a territory capable of sustaining a population many fold larger, and which is filling up with unprecedented rapidity. The educational institutions and agencies of nearly all the American States are yet to be framed, or greatly improved.

II. Tables exhibiting the rapid growth in population of the several States of the Union from 1790 to 1850, with the juvenile population in each, for which educational institutions and agencies must be provided; institutions and agencies which must be rapidly increased and improved to meet the wants of the rapidly increasing population.

III. A table presenting the Educational Statistics of the several States, as gathered under authority of Congress, in 1850, viz.: the number of Colleges, including professional and other schools of Superior Education, the number of teachers, and pupils, and annual income; the number of academies, and institutions of Secondary Education, their teachers, pupils, and annual income; the number of Public or Elementary Schools, their teachers, pupils, and income; together with the whole number of persons returned as at schools of some kind on a particular time, and also during the year, and the number of the adult white population who had not received even the lowest degree of school instruction, to enable them to read the printed constitution and laws of the country, or write the vote they may cast into the ballot box. Although not minutely accurate, the results exhibited in this table afford the basis of comparison between the several States, and suggest the direction in which the labors of statesmen and education must be vigorously put forth.

IV. A table showing the extent to which books are collected into Libraries of various kinds; by which those important instrumentalities of self-education, those store-houses of the garnered wisdom of past ages, and those sources of rational enjoyment, are within reach of all classes in the several States.

V. A table exhibiting the number of libraries and volumes in the principal states, cities, and universities of Europe; by which the amazing deficiencies of even our best college and public libraries can be seen at a glance, and at the same time the advances made by several of the States of our own country in the dissemination of books by means of Sunday School, and District School Libraries, can be seen.

VI. Summaries, in which the most important Statistics of the principal educational institutions of the several States are given, viz.: the prospective as well as the present available funds appropriated to educational purpose; and, the condition of the Common or Public Schools, Normal Schools, Reform Schools, and Special Schools for the education of deaf-mutes, blind, and idiotic persons—of all schools supported wholly or partly by tax, or the income of public funds, and responsible to the Legislatures of the several States.

Under this head we had proceeded in alphabetical order through fifteen of the thirty-one states, commencing with Alabama, and closing with Massachusetts.

We shall now resume these Summaries, commencing with the State of Michigan.

VII. Statistics and Suggestions gathered from late official reports on the public schools of several of the largest cities in the country, to show the magnitude of their educational interest, and the manner in which some of the difficult problems in public education are solved.

VIII. A table of the Population of the principal cities and towns in the several States, with the rate of increase in each, to show at once, in the large and compact population, the facilities enjoyed for an efficient system of public schools, and the necessity of constant enlargement in the means provided for the increasing number of children.

IX. Table exhibiting the number of deaf and dumb, blind, insane, and idiotic persons of each class of the population in each State.

X. Statistics of Newspapers and the Periodical Press.

We shall in a subsequent number present other statistical tables and summaries, drawn from official documents, particularly such as will exhibit the amount of pauperism and crime in the several states.

VI. SCHOOL FUNDS AND INSTITUTIONS OF EDUCATION

SUPPORTED WHOLLY OR PARTLY BY PUBLIC FUNDS.

[Continued from page 380.]

MICHIGAN.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The State received from Congress a grant of 1,067,897 acres of land for common school purposes, and of 46,000 for a university. Out of the former a fund of \$1,493,653 has been realized, and of the latter, \$431,177. The State has also set apart lands for a normal school fund, which have already netted \$64,222, and for an asylum for deaf mutes and blind, which already net \$29,553. A large portion of these various lands are yet unsold.

COMMON OR PRIMARY SCHOOLS. Number of whole districts in the State, 2,550; fractional districts, 1,115; number of districts making reports, 3,095; number of children in the State, in districts where schools are taught, 173,117; whole number of children attending school, 129,517, of whom 2,290 were under four years and 6,224 above 18. Amount of school money apportioned upon the basis of the number of children residing in the districts between 4 and 18, \$130,996.69; amount raised by districts, \$166,916.90; amount raised by rate-bill, \$63,763.43; amount paid teacher's wages, \$237,827.15; volumes in township libraries, 121,201; two-mill tax collected for school and township libraries, \$67,179.55; amount received from fines, &c., for township libraries, \$2,457.80.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT YPSILANTI. Established in 1850, and went into operation in 1853. The citizens of Ypsilanti contributed \$13,500 toward the expense of the building. There were in 1855, 200 pupils.

STATE ASYLUM FOR THE DEAF MUTES AND BLIND AT FLINT. Established in 1848 and opened in 1854. The buildings, when complete, will accommodate 350 pupils. There were in 1854-5, 19 deaf and 4 blind pupils.

MISSISSIPPI.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The State received 837,584 acres of land for common schools, and 23,040 acres for a university. Each township has a school fund arising from the lease of lands granted by Congress for common school purposes, every 16th section in each township having been so granted. These lands are leased for various periods, but mostly for ninety-nine years. The money thence arising is loaned annually at not less than 8 nor more than 10 per cent. per annum interest. This interest is the amount applied to tuition, &c., annually from the township fund. There is also a county fund, arising from fines, forfeitures, licenses, &c., which is distributed in those townships that are destitute or have but a small school fund. The school sections in some townships are worth many thousand dollars, and in others only a few hundreds. Hence great inequality in the funds of the townships, and the necessity of the above method of distributing the county funds.

COMMON SCHOOLS. There is no uniform system of common schools for all the counties, and no annual returns are made to the legislature. According to a distribution of \$300,000 to the several counties in 1852, there were 91,251 children of a school age.

STATE UNIVERSITY AT OXFORD. A recent application to the legislature for aid has been successful, and the annual appropriation to the use of the University has been increased to \$30,000.

STATE INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND AT JACKSON. Of this institution we have no returns.

STATE INSTITUTION FOR DEAF MUTES AT JACKSON. Of this institution we have no returns.

MISSOURI.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The State received 1,192,139 acres of land for common schools, and 23,040 for a higher seminary. The present available School Fund, state and township, is \$1,275,657, and of the Seminary Fund, \$100,000. The State appropriates one-fourth of its annual revenue for educational purposes. The school lands of St. Louis are valued at \$612,285.

COMMON SCHOOLS. There were reported in 1853, 233,327 scholars between the ages of 5 and 20, of whom 80,605 were in organized school townships. For 1854 reports were received from 65 counties. Number of children between 5 and 20, 262,656; number taught within the year, 67,924; average attendance at schools the whole term they were kept, 20,874; whole number of teachers, 1,780, 1,416 males and 364 females; paid for teachers' wages, \$212,138; paid teachers from common school funds, \$131,456; number of common schools, 1,546; of district libraries, 1,117; money raised for building or repairing school-houses, \$29,034; revenue school moneys appropriated to each child, 92 cents; bank dividends so apportioned, 42 cents.

STATE ASYLUM FOR DEAF AND DUMB AT FULTON. Institution was opened in 1851. In 1854 there were 64 pupils. State appropriates \$2,000 for its annual expenses.

STATE ASYLUM FOR BLIND AT ST. LOUIS. Established in 1851. State appropriates \$3,000 annually for the indigent blind. 14 pupils.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. This State has a small permanent School Fund of \$16,435.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS. The following were the statistics of education in 1854.

Number of persons in the State, pursuing education in the schools, during the past year:

Dartmouth College,	294
Incorporated academies,	2,919
Unincorporated academies and private schools,	4,720
Common Schools,	84,000

Total number, 92,833

Being 1 in every 3, 42-100 of the whole population.

Amount of money applied for the purposes of instruction:

Dartmouth College,	\$13,560
Incorporated academies,	23,514
Unincorporated academies and private schools,	16,173
Amount raised by taxes for common schools, about	200,000
Amount raised for teachers' institutes,	4,500
Amount of literary fund, about	14,000

Total amount, \$271,747

Number of schools:

Colleges,	3
Incorporated academies,	47
Unincorporated academies and private schools,	46
Common school districts,	2,800

Total number, 2,396

COMMON SCHOOLS.—Number of districts, 2,236. Number of pupils in winter, 66,309; in summer, 67,956. Length of winter schools in weeks, 9.85; of summer,

9.74. Average monthly wages of male teachers, exclusive of board, \$17.88; of female teachers, \$7.83. Number of male teachers in winter schools, 1,098; of female teachers, 1,156. Whole amount raised for district schools, \$231,434.

NEW JERSEY.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The available school fund, January 1, 1855, was \$401, 804.34. There is, besides, due the school fund, but unavailable, the sum of \$11,169.85. The receipts of the fund during the year, including balance of cash, January 1, 1854, were \$53,514.62. By the School Act of 1851, \$40,000 are appropriated to the use of schools from the school fund, and \$40,000 from the State treasury, which sum of \$80,000 is apportioned among the counties upon the basis of population.

COMMON SCHOOLS. The statistics of the schools for 1854 are as follows: Number of townships in the State, 190; number of townships making returns, 164; number of districts in those townships, 1,426; returns received from 1,377. Children between 5 and 18, 168,031; children attending school 3 months or less, 25,380; 6 months, 26,958; 9 months, 24,968; 12 months, 26,658; number over 18 years of age who attended school, 1,076; colored children taught, 2,384; whole number of children taught, 105,040. Average length of schools in months, 8½; average price of tuition per quarter to each pupil, \$2.08. Amount raised by tax to support schools, \$210,023.44; received from the State, \$85,250; from other sources, \$42,756.92; amount raised in addition for building, repairing, and furnishing school-rooms, \$44,925.99; total amount appropriated for school purposes, \$388,571.86. Whole number of teachers, 1,981,—1,201 males and 780 females. Salary of males per annum, \$347; of females, \$203. Eight teachers' institutes have been held during the year, at which 356 teachers attended. Teachers' associations are also held quarterly in the counties where they exist. The Superintendent speaks of the experiment of teachers' institutes in this State as being "signally successful."

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL. The legislature in 1855 established an institution for the education of teachers for the common schools, and appropriated \$10,000 a year for five years for its support. The school is located at Trenton, with W. F. Phelps for Principal.

THE DEAF AND DUMB. The Legislature provides for the indigent deaf and dumb children in the institution in New York, at an expense of about \$5,000 a year.

NEW YORK.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The amount of capital and annual revenue of the several funds appropriated to the purposes of education, for the year ending September 30, 1854, was as follows:—

	Capital.	Revenue.
Common School Fund,	\$2,425,211.97	\$514,994.87
United States Deposit Fund,	4,014,620.71	286,949.77
Literature Fund,	268,620.12	52,433.68
	\$6,708,352.80	\$854,378.32

Of the funds devoted to education, what was exclusively the Common School Fund in 1854, may be stated as follows:

Productive capital of the Common School Fund,	\$2,425,211.97
Amount from United States Deposit Fund which will produce \$165,000, the sum annually appropriated therefrom for the support of common schools, at six per cent. interest,	2,750,000.00

Amount from same fund which will produce at six per cent. \$35,000 annually, that being the sum reserved by the constitution to be added annually to the capital of the School Fund, . . . \$416,666.07

Making a total of \$5,591,578.64

The annual interest on this sum, at six per cent. is \$335,512. The balance of the income of the United States Deposit Fund is appropriated to the support of colleges, academies, the normal school, Indian schools, teachers' institute, &c. The income of the Literature Fund, must, by the constitution, be applied to the support of academies.

The whole amount of public money received from all sources by the commissioners of cities, and town superintendents, during the year ending July 1, 1854, was \$1,656,993.37. Apportioned for teachers' wages, \$1,316,935.11; for libraries, \$47,654.06. Leaving a balance for contingent expenses, &c., of \$292,404.20. The amount of taxes levied during the year, for purchasing school-houses, was \$44,995.07; for building do. \$290,283.89; for hiring do. \$11,189.57; repairing do. \$102,095.24; insuring do. \$3,991.10; fuel, \$98,812.08; books, apparatus, &c., \$11,414.76. The amount paid for teachers' wages, beside public money, was \$285,365.25. Aggregate expenditures for school purposes during the year, \$2,666,609.38.

COMMON SCHOOLS. The statistics of the common schools for the year 1854, were as follows: Whole number of districts, the school-houses of which are situated within the town, 11,798. Number of whole districts in the State, 8,855. Number of parts of districts, 5,875. Returns were received from 8,729 whole and 5,723 parts of districts. Average length of schools in all the districts, 8 months. Volumes in district libraries, 1,572,270. 877,201 children were taught during the year. 1,186,709 were returned between 4 and 21 years of age. 109,155 pupils attended school less than 2 months; 212,110 attended 2 months and less than 4; 177,957, 4 and less than 6; 128,206, 6 and less than 8; 71,198, 8 and less than 10; 42,174, 10 and less than 12; and 13,591 attended school for 12 months. There were 4,568 colored children between 4 and 21 in the 30 colored schools reported. \$1,978.12 of public money were received on account of colored schools, and, besides public money, \$1,360.38 were paid for teachers' wages. Number of unincorporated, select, and private schools reported in the districts, 1,501. Average number of pupils therein, 34,279. \$1,000 are appropriated for the support and education of Indian youths at *farm-houses*, instead of schools, as formerly. 1,570 pupils had their tuition paid by the State, at academies in the expectation that they will become teachers. Teachers' institutes were held in 19 counties of the State.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL. The State appropriates about \$12,000 a year for the State Normal School, at Albany. About 250 attend the normal school annually. In September, 1854, there were 250 pupils in the school, 64 males, and 186 females. The whole number of graduates is 780, 391 males and 389 females. In this school in 1852-53, 16 Indian youth, 15 males and 1 female, were taught to prepare them for teachers among their own people. Nearly every county in the State is represented in this school. The miscellaneous library consists of about 1,000 volumes and pamphlets; that of text-books of about 6,000 volumes. The expenses of the school for the year near \$11,492.00.

INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB, NEW YORK. Number of teachers, 12; number of pupils, Dec. 31, 1853, 278; left during the year, 43; admitted, 44; whole number Dec. 31, 1854, 279. Of these 203 were supported by New York; 16 by the city of New York; 20 by New Jersey; 32 by their friends; and 6 by the institution. The time of admission is the first Wednesday in September;

terms, \$130 per annum for each pupil, clothing and traveling expenses excepted, to be paid semi-annually in advance, and satisfactory security for punctual payment of bills and clothing, which, if desired, is furnished at an additional charge of \$30 a year. The receipts of the institution from all sources for the year 1854, were \$49,982.16. Expenditures, including balance last year due the treasurer of \$3,460.53, \$52,367.71. Due the treasurer, \$5,847.08.

INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND, AT NEW YORK. The State appropriates \$22,004 a year toward the education of its indigent blind youth in the institution at New York.

INSTITUTION FOR IDIOTS, AT SYRACUSE. This institution was opened at Albany in October, 1851, under the care of Dr. Wilbur, but in 1855 was removed to Syracuse, where a building had been erected at an expense, including the land, of \$81,000. There are about 70 pupils.

HOUSES OF REFUGE AND REFORMATION FOR JUVENILE CRIMINALS. There are two institutions for young criminals: one at Randall's Island, near New York, and the other at Rochester. For the two, the Legislature appropriated \$112,000 in 1854. The institution at Rochester, on the 1st of Jan., 1855 had 268 inmates: 155 were received during the year; average age 13.33; 56 were American, 96 foreigners, and 4 colored. 109 were committed for petit larceny; 16 for grand larceny; 1 for rape; 18 for vagrancy. Of those who left during the year, 40 were indentured; 5 sent to sea on whaling voyages; and 50 discharged to parents and guardians. The boys work seven hours a day, and are at school three and a half hours.

JUVENILE ASYLUM AT NEW YORK. The legislature in 1854 appropriated \$50,000 in aid of the establishment of an asylum for young offenders who had not been pronounced criminal by the courts. The school was opened in 1854, and has already received over 500 neglected and vicious children. A large and commodious structure near King's Bridge, is nearly completed for the accommodation of the institution.

NORTH CAROLINA.

EDUCATIONAL FUND. In 1825 the State constituted a fund for the support of common schools, called the Literary Fund, out of the sales of the swamp lands, and of property which may escheat to the State. The present capital of the fund is \$1,700,000. The income in 1854 was \$128,000.

COMMON SCHOOLS. The present system was instituted in 1840, and in 1852, the office of Superintendent of Common Schools was created and filled by the appointment of C. H. Wiley. From his report for 1855, it appears that there were about 3,500 common schools with 150,000 pupils; 300 academies with 9,000 teachers; nine high schools or colleges for girls, and five colleges for males, with an aggregate attendance of over 1,000 students. The State appropriated \$180,000, and \$60,000 more were raised by local taxes. Pay of male teachers about \$21, and of female teachers, \$18 per month.

ASYLUM FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB AND BLIND AT RALEIGH. Instituted in 1848. State appropriates \$1,000 annually in aid of indigent pupils.

OHIO.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The school fund consists, (1.) of certain *trust funds*, the proceeds of lands originally given to certain districts of territory in the State, upon which the State pays the interest annually to the several counties in the proper district, according to the number of youth therein; (2.) of the *State Common School Fund*, which by the act of March 24, 1851, § 30, is made to consist of "the interest

of the purchase-money of the Salt Lands; the balance of the Surplus Revenue Fund; the interest of the Surplus Revenue Fund paid by the counties; receipts from peddlers' licenses, from auction duties, from taxes upon lawyers and physicians, and upon banks and insurance and bridge companies; and of such taxes, to be levied by the General Assembly, as shall be sufficient, with the above revenues, to produce, for annual distribution, the sum of \$300,000." The amount of the State School Fund apportioned to the several counties for the year 1854, in the ratio of the unmarried youth between 5 and 21 years of age,—being \$1,377 each,—was \$1,118,089.02; of interest on School and Trust Funds so apportioned, \$112,463.65; of School District Library Fund so distributed, \$55,904.45; of local expenditures, \$980,000, making the whole amount of funds and property appropriated \$2,266,457.12. The average rate per scholar paid for tuition out of the School Fund of 1854, was \$2.071.

COMMON SCHOOLS. Number of townships, corporations, or districts reported in the State, 1,504; of special districts, 207; of fractional districts, 162; of sub-districts, 11,203; number of white youth between 5 and 21 years, males, 414,519; females, 392,831; in all, 807,350; of colored youth, males, 4,919; females, 4,837; in all, 9,756; total youth, 817,106. Number of common schools, 10,330; number of teachers, males, 7,469; females, 6,413; number of white youth attending school, males, 244,089; females, 209,663; average daily attendance, males, 148,271; females, 125,171. Number of scholars who can read and write, 239,168. Total number of months of winter schools, 17,589; average length, 1.7 months; of summer schools, 13,028; average length, 1.3 months. Wages of teachers per month, males, \$28; females, \$13. Number of school-houses, 7,235; value of lots and furniture, \$3,197,384; number built this year, 770; value \$346,943.92.

HIGH SCHOOLS. Number, 57; number of teachers, male, 71; females, 63; average daily attendance, males, 2,258; females, 1,496. Number of months taught in winter, 122.5; average length in months, 2.15; number of months taught in summer, 84.25; average length in months, 1.48. Teachers' wages per month, males, \$58; females, \$28.50.

COLORED SCHOOLS. Number, 48. Number of scholars during the year, males, 1,265; females, 1,174. Monthly pay of teachers, males, \$21.75; females, \$19.

There are also 16 English and German schools.

ASYLUM FOR DEAF AND DUMB AT COLUMBUS. The Asylum was opened October 16, 1829, and since that time there have been 581 pupils. The number present, December 4, 1854, was 157, 81 males and 76 females. Of those who have been admitted into the institution, the causes of deafness ascribed by friends were congenital, 215; from accidental causes, 316. 413 were from families in which there was but one child deaf and dumb; 46 from families where there were 2; 33 where there were 3; 4 where there were 4; 1 where there were 5; and 2 where there were 6. The number who are known to have married since graduation is 59, of whom 42 married deaf mutes. Of these latter only one case is known where the child is deaf and dumb.

INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND, COLUMBUS. The number, including graduates and assistants, in 1854, 66; of these, 60 were pupils. During the year there were 73 pupils in the institution, 38 males and 35 females.

PENNSYLVANIA.

COMMON SCHOOLS IN 1854. A system of popular education was attempted in Pennsylvania, and a common school fund established, in 1831. The State was not divided into districts for school purposes until 1834, and the act of April 1st, of that year is generally considered the first common school law. The act of May 8, 1854, revised the school laws of the State. By it the Secretary of State

is continued to be, *ex officio*, the Superintendent of common schools, with the authority to appoint a deputy. The office of county superintendent is established, and it is made the duty of the officer, who is elected by the school directors of the several districts in the county for three years, to attend especially to the schools in the county, and to examine and give certificates to teachers. The school districts are put under the immediate care of the school directors, who report to the county superintendent. Teachers are required to report monthly to the directors and can receive no pay until such report is made. The districts for school purposes are made bodies corporate, with power to sue and be sued; to borrow money to an amount not exceeding one-half of one per cent of the assessed value of the real estate of the district, to purchase ground or build school-houses. The directors are required to establish in their districts separate schools for mulatto and negro children, when they can be located so as to accommodate twenty pupils; and when so established, and kept open four months in any year, the directors shall not be compelled to admit such pupils into other schools of the district. No district can receive its share of the State appropriation for any year, until its schools have been kept four months in such year. The directors and teachers in each district meet annually before the schools are opened, and determine the school-books that are to be used during the year, and no others than those thus selected can be used. The county superintendents are to report to the State superintendent in June of each year. There could be no report made for the year 1854, and the statistics of the schools for 1853 are therefore repeated. The whole number of school districts reported, exclusive of the city and county of Philadelphia, for the year ending June 30th, 1853, was 1,531. The whole number of schools was 9,507. The average number of months that schools were taught was 5. Number of male teachers, 7,590; number of female teachers, 3,640. Average wages per month of male teachers, \$19.25; of female teachers, \$12.03. Number of male scholars, 260,269; number of female scholars, 214,286; number learning German, 11,121. The average number of scholars in each school was 42; and the cost of teaching each scholar per month, 43 cents. The amount of tax levied in the accepting districts was \$1,021,337.34; received from the State appropriation, including \$31,307.30 paid to Philadelphia city and county, \$184,390.27. The cost of instruction was \$731,743.18; fuel and contingencies, \$84,168.76; of school-houses, repairs, &c., \$147,516.73. The number of taxables by the triennial return in 1853 was 645,164. The returns of over 100 districts are not included in the foregoing, as they were received too late. Since, and including 1844, the annual appropriation by the State for the support of schools has been \$200,000.

INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND, PHILADELPHIA. The school was opened in March, 1833. Number of pupils, Jan. 1, 1855, 125,—66 males, 59 females. Of this number there are from Pennsylvania 93, Maryland 8, New Jersey 14, Delaware 6, all other places 4. Number of pupils from its foundation to Jan. 1, 1855, 237. Causes of blindness: ophthalmia 74, amaurosis 32, cataract 20, congenital 18, small-pox 10, scarlet fever 6, other fevers 4, measles 6, accidents from stones, &c., 16, explosion of powder 12, pistol or gun-shot 5, accidents not stated 5, scrofula 3, hydrocephalus, arrow-shots and fire, 2 each, kick of a horse, foul air in a well, rheumatism, whooping-cough, polypus, acute iretus, irritable retina, neuralgia, 1 each, unknown 13. Value of goods manufactured during the year 1854, \$8,368.85; sales \$7,641.39. Expenses of the Institution, \$32,475.48; receipts, \$30,898.77. No sectarian faith is inculcated. School, music, and work alternately occupy 8½ hours daily. The terms for pay pupils are \$200 a year, including board instruction, and medical attendance. Blind children in indigent circumstances from Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, and Delaware are provided for by those States for 8 years.

HOUSE OF REFUGE, PHILADELPHIA. Remaining, December 31, 1852, 149 boys and 49 girls in the white and 84 boys and 40 girls in the colored department; total 322. The institution is designed for the reform of juvenile delinquents. Most of the inmates are committed by magistrates, and a few by the county courts. The boys are employed in various manufacturing occupations. Their earnings amounted to \$6,654.58. The expenses of the year were \$87,912.78, and the receipts \$87,064.13.

HOUSE OF REFUGE OF WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA, PITTSBURG. The charter of this institution was granted in April, 1850. The State then appropriated \$20,000 toward the purchase of a site and the erection of buildings, and subsequently \$20,000 more. \$20,000 additional have been subscribed by five of the western counties, and 23,322.50 by individuals up to December 31, 1854. There had been expended for the site (eleven acres) \$10,000, and for buildings, &c., \$92,500. The institution was opened for the admission of inmates December 13, 1854, and is intended not only for those youth of the western counties of Pennsylvania, who have been convicted of crime or misdemeanor, but for those who, from their incorrigible or vicious conduct, are beyond the control of their parents or guardians.

PENNSYLVANIA INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB, PHILADELPHIA. There were in the institution Dec. 31, 1854, 163; 93 boys, and 70 girls. Of these, 106 are supported by the State of Pennsylvania, 18 by Maryland, 11 by New Jersey, and 8 by Delaware. About 6 hours each day are spent by the pupils in the schools, and 3 hours by the males in the tailor's or shoemaker's shops. The females are instructed in sewing, and other branches of domestic economy. The expenses for the year were about \$40,000.

RHODE ISLAND.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The State has a permanent School Fund, actually invested, of \$73,896.38. By an act passed in 1836, the interest of the State's part of the United States surplus revenue (commonly called the Deposit Fund) was set apart for public schools. \$35,000 are annually paid from the State treasury for schools; and by the act of January, 1854, \$15,000 were added to the annual appropriation. By an act passed in June, 1848, the proceeds of the militia commutation tax in each town are to be applied hereafter to the support of public schools.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. The whole number of school districts in October, 1854, is 382, of which 42 are not organized; 297 districts own their school-houses; in 40 districts they are owned by the town; and in 41 by proprietors. There has been expended for school-houses during the last nine years, \$319,293.07; during the last year, \$7,348.57. Number of scholars in May, 1854, 25,868,—13,776 males and 11,811 females; average attendance, 19,894. Number of male teachers, 253; of female, 364. Amount received from the State, \$35,000; amount raised by towns, \$61,013; whole amount from all sources, \$118,002.38. Expended for instruction, \$108,049.

NORMAL SCHOOL. A State Normal School was established by the legislature in May, 1854, and \$3,000 a year are appropriated therefor. It is at Providence. Dana P. Colburn is principal. Teachers' institutes are annually held in different parts of the State, supported by the State.

DEAF MUTES, BLIND AND IDIOTS. The sum of \$2,500 is appropriated for the education of indigent deaf mutes, blind, and idiotic persons. The State beneficiaries among the deaf and dumb, four in number, are sent to the American Asylum at Hartford; those of the blind, three in number, are sent to the Perkins Institution at South Boston. Four persons (up to January 1, 1858) have received the benefits

of the State appropriation for idiots and imbeciles, two of whom are at South Boston, one at Barre, Mass., and one under the care of Mr. J. B. Richards, at Philadelphia.

PROVIDENCE REFORM SCHOOL. This school was established in 1850, and was opened to receive inmates, November 1, 1850. From that date to November 30, 1854, there were committed, 293,—252 boys, 41 girls. There were in the school, November 30, 1854, 106,—92 boys and 14 girls; admitted during the year, 85,—73 boys and 12 girls. Discharged during the year, 70 boys and 10 girls. Of the 85 admitted during the year, 27 were committed for theft; 11 for assault; 8 for vagrancy; 24 for truancy; 4 for safe-keeping. 58 were born in the United States, and of these 43 were born in Rhode Island. 7½ hours in each day, except Sundays, are devoted to labor; 5 to school exercises; 2½ to meals and recreation; 1 to religious exercises; and 8 to sleep. Their labor has been employed in making such articles as are needed in the institution, and in housework. An arrangement is made by the State by which all juvenile delinquents may be sent to this school.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The State has no permanent Educational Funds, but makes liberal appropriations of money raised by tax, for educational purposes. In 1854, among the items of expenditure are \$30,000 for Military Schools; \$6,823 for Deaf and Dumb; \$75,000 for Free Schools; \$22,000 for South Carolina College; \$400 for pupils of Orphan House at Charleston, at South Carolina College; \$3,688 for Libraries; \$20,000 for Medical College; \$20,000 to College at Charleston.

FREE SCHOOLS. The State appropriates annually \$75,000 for the support of Free Schools. In some districts independent schools are set up, but in others the officers entrusted with the expenditure of the quota for a particular district, pay the tuition of a certain number of poor scholars, who are admitted into pay or private schools as beneficiaries.

INSTITUTION FOR DEAF AND DUMB AT SPARTANBURG. For many years this State sent her indigent deaf mutes to the American Asylum at Hartford. In 1849, Mr. N. P. Walker opened a private school with four pupils, near Spartanburg. The State pays at the rate of \$150 for each of the twenty-six beneficiaries.

TENNESSEE.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. This State has a permanent School Fund of \$1,346,068, made up of a bonus paid by several banks, the income of which amounts to about \$113,000, and an academy fund, which yields about \$18,000 a year.

COMMON SCHOOLS. There are no published returns of the condition of the schools, except the number of children between the ages of 6 and 21, which in 1851 was 288,454.

ASYLUM FOR DEAF MUTES AT KNOXVILLE. Established in 1845; has 40 pupils, and received \$2,500 from the State.

INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND AT NASHVILLE. Established in 1844; has 20 pupils, and receives \$3,000 from the State.

TEXAS.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. One-tenth of all the revenues of the State are set aside for schools by the constitution, and by act of the legislature, to constitute a General School Fund, which now amounts to \$150,000. \$2,000,000 in United States Bonds, yielding at 5 per cent. \$100,000 annually, are also appropriated to constitute a Special School Fund, besides liberal grants of land to the several counties. The amount annually distributed is about \$115,000.

COMMON SCHOOLS. There is no uniform or efficient system of common schools in operation. The number of children between the ages of 6 and 16 returned in 1854, was 127,128.

VERMONT.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The State had set apart an accumulating fund in aid of common schools, which in 1845, amounted to \$300,000, and in that year was abolished, and the sum, which had been before borrowed for that purpose, was appropriated to pay the State debt.

COMMON SCHOOLS. The office of State Superintendent of Common Schools has not been filled since 1851, and no returns of the condition of the schools has been made since that date. In 1851 there were 2,594 school districts; number of scholars, 90,110; average of wages paid male teachers per month, \$13.55; average of wages paid female teachers per month, \$5.54; whole wages for males, \$65,759.10; for females, \$61,312.65; number of weeks of schools by males, 19,360; by females, 43,238; whole wages to teachers, \$127,071.51; cost of board, \$70,492.87; cost of fuel, &c., \$19,837.65; cost for wages, board, and fuel, \$217,402.33; public money divided for support of schools, \$90,893.91; average length of school during the year, 24 weeks; average of scholars per district, 39; expense per scholar, \$2.20.

DEAF AND DUMB AND BLIND. The indigent deaf mutes of the State are supported at the American Asylum at Hartford, and the blind at the Perkins Institution at Boston. Expense about \$2,500 a year.

VIRGINIA.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The State has funds for literary purposes, viz., 1. The *permanent* Literary Fund amounts to \$1,964,162.49, from which deduct losses, etc., \$376,141.85, which leaves an available capital of \$1,588,020.64. With the exception of \$24,324.82 in the treasury, this sum is invested and productive. The interest on this sum is \$102,391.11, of which amount \$75,000 were appropriated to primary and free schools for the poor, \$15,000 to the University, and \$1,500 to the Military Institute.

2. The *Dawson* Fund is a bequest for the support of free schools in Nelson and Albemarle counties, and now amounts to \$39,016.04, and to this may be added \$25,167.45 of unproductive capital. The net amount of interest received on the available capital for 1852, was \$2,342.42, two-thirds of which are appropriated, according to the will of Mr. Dawson, to Albemarle and one-third to Nelson county.

3. The total resources of the Literary Fund amounted to \$122,673.46, which includes the proceeds of several fines, escheats, etc., and the expenditures to \$109,968.03, leaving a balance in the treasury equal to \$36,858.36.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. There are two descriptions of schools in Virginia, viz., the primary or common schools, and the district free schools. The latter are established in Henry, Jefferson, Kanawha, King George, Northampton, Norfolk, Ohio, Princess Anne, and Washington counties, and in the towns of Portsmouth and Wheeling. The first are schools for the poor, and the latter for all classes. The number of school commissioners in 139 counties and six towns was 1,865. There were in 123 counties and towns, 3,710 common or poor schools, at which 30,324 children had been taught during the year, at a total expense of \$68,964; and in eight counties and two towns, 232 district free schools, at which 10,848 children had been taught at a total expense of \$59,628. The average cost of each child in the common schools was \$2.21, and in the district schools \$5.86. Average attendance of each child at common schools 56 days, and at district schools about 110 days. The reports, however, are very incomplete and wanting in detail.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA. This is a State institution, and had in 1852-3, 400

students. The numbers in attendance on the several schools were as follows: school of ancient languages, 122; of modern languages, 117; of mathematics, 143; of natural philosophy, 125; of chemistry, 206; of medicine, 96; of comparative anatomy, physiology, and surgery, 94; of anatomy, 97; of moral philosophy, 119; and of law, 81. The receipts of the University for the year were \$47,329.44, and the expenses \$44,266.09. The library contains 15,115 volumes, and 4,567 pamphlets and periodicals, or 19,702 in the aggregate.

VIRGINIA MILITARY INSTITUTE. This is a *military and scientific* school in law and in fact, and the policy of its course of instruction has been regulated accordingly. The course of instruction is distributed among six departments, viz., mathematics; English and Latin languages; engineering, drawing, and geography; chemistry, geology, and mineralogy; natural and experimental philosophy; and French language. The expenses of the institute for the year, exclusive of funds expended in new buildings, were \$48,779.91, of which sum \$15,406.42 paid the expenses of the Institute proper, \$19,551.19 those of the quartermasters' department, and \$13,822.30 those of the subsistence department.

DEAF MUTES AND BLIND. The institution is located at Staunton. In the Deaf-mute department there was 65 inmates—33 males and 32 females; and in the Blind department 38—22 males and 16 females. The whole number of deaf-mutes on the registers on the 30th September, 1852, was 137, and of blind, 88. The inmates are employed in four shops—the brush and mattress shop, the book-binding shop, the shoe shop, and the chair shop. The literary education is very thorough, and includes music, drawing, etc. Annual charges, \$120 for deaf mutes, and \$160 for the blind. The expenses of the institution for the year amounted to \$18,855. State appropriation \$15,000.

WISCONSIN.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS. The State has received from the United States 258,648 acres of land for elementary schools, and 46,000 for a university. The capital of the Common School Fund, December 31, 1854, was \$1,670,258.77, of which the sum of \$1,685,576.74 is drawing interest at 7 per cent., and will give \$114,490 for distribution. If to this be added unexpended balances, there was for distribution, in 1855, \$144,412, or a fraction over 93 cents to each child in the State between 4 and 20 years of age. There is, besides, the University Fund, of \$161,146.61, the income of which is applied for the benefit of the State University.

COMMON SCHOOLS. For the year ending August 31, 1854, returns were received from 38 of the 50 counties in the State. Of the 435 towns in the counties heard from, all but 10 made reports. The number of school districts in the reporting towns was 2,164. 101,580 out of the 155,125 children residing in the counties, between the ages of 4 and 20, attended school. 1,359 children under 4 years of age, and 994 over 20, attended school. Average monthly wages of male teachers, \$21.10; of female, \$10.87. Average number of months kept by male teachers, 3.4; by female teachers, 4.33. \$163,485.64 were expended for teachers' wages, \$2,040.89 for libraries, and \$9,472.43 for other purposes. Number of volumes reported in libraries, 14,027. There are 75 school-houses of brick, 79 of stone, 933 of logs, and 1,052 framed, and all are valued at \$347,544.55.

STATE DEAF AND DUMB INSTITUTE AT DELAVAN. Established in 1852. 31 pupils in 1854.

STATE INSTITUTE FOR THE BLIND AT JANESVILLE. Established in 1850, and supported by a State tax of a mill in every dollar of taxable property, which yielded in 1853, \$1,500. 16 pupils in 1854.

VII. STATISTICS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN CITIES AND LARGE TOWNS.

In presenting the Statistics of Public Schools in a few of the cities included in the Table VIII., we will relieve the severity and dryness of mere figures, by presenting them in their connection with the observations of the school officers intrusted with the administration of the several systems.

BOSTON.

The Public Schools of Boston are intrusted to the supervision of a School Board, composed of seventy-four members, *viz.*, the Mayor of the City, the President of the Common Council, and six persons chosen in each ward,—two elected each year, and holding their offices for a term of three years. This board are assisted by a superintendent,—who receives a salary of \$2,500, and devotes his whole time to the interests of the schools. This office is now held by that veteran, not in years, but in school superintendence, Nathan Bishop, LL. D., and any suggestions from his pen are entitled to the serious consideration of all engaged in organizing or administering systems of public education. From his last (Fifth) Annual Report, and the Annual Report of the School Board for 1855, and the Report of the Auditor, we gather the following statistics and suggestions.

The present territorial limits of Boston include 3,500 acres, nearly one-half of which has been reclaimed from the sea. It is all one school district,—and the schools in the remote, and less wealthy sections have as good school houses, furniture, appliances, and teachers, as those in the central and richer portions.

In 1855, there were 162,748 inhabitants, of whom 29,092 were between the ages of five and fifteen. As to the school attendance of these children, the superintendent makes the following exhibit :

"For the year ending September 1st, 1855, there were 23,529 pupils belonging to the public schools, and in habitual attendance. To avoid all misunderstanding on this point, it may be well to add here a few words of explanation. The above is the *average* number *belonging* to the schools during the year, although the whole number of different pupils who received public instruction for a longer or shorter time, was much larger. For example, if one pupil attend school *five* months, another *three*, and a third *two*, these three would be counted in the foregoing estimate as if they were only one child attending school the ten months which constitute a school year. Hence, while we report that 23,529 pupils were in the public schools last year ; it is a matter of record that more than 25,500 individual children received instruction in our schools for a period varying from one month to the whole year.

Of the 23,529 pupils reported as being in the schools last year, there were, in the primary schools, 1,729 between four and five years old, and in the higher grades of schools there were 841 scholars over fifteen years of age. Now by using these statistics as the basis for calculating the whole number of school children in the city, between four and five years old, and those over fifteen who are probably in school, we find the result to be 3,082, which, being added to the 29,092 gives us 32,174 as the number of young persons in Boston who are "*due* at the schools," and who ought to be receiving instruction in some public or private school for a large portion of the year.

Let us now see what account we can render of these 32,174 young persons who are of a suitable age for being in some school.

1. It has already been stated that there were 23,529 pupils in habitual attendance at the public schools during the year, and also that at least 2,000

more received instruction for such periods as will give to this number an average of about four months schooling in the year. By adding these two numbers and subtracting the sum from 32,174, we have left 6,645 persons of suitable age who do not attend the *public* schools.

2. We now proceed to ascertain what number of these persons are in attendance at the various *private* schools in the city.

We have ascertained that there can not be less than 3,180 scholars in all the "incorporated and unincorporated academies and private schools" in the city. Taking this number from the 6,645, we have 3,565 young persons of a proper age for attending school still unaccounted for.

3. In the next place, we must find how many of this remaining number are in the numerous public and private charitable and reformatory institutions within the limits of the city. We learn from the report of the person employed to collect the statistics relating to the private schools, that there are in these institutions 638 children of the proper age to be included in this estimate, who are receiving regular instruction suited to their years. After deducting this number from the 3,565, we have 2,927 who are not known to be receiving what is termed a good common education in schools.

4. In addition to the children in the public and the private schools, and in the various institutions, there are in every community many who are taught at home by instructors employed for the purpose, either because the parents prefer a home education, or on account of some physical or mental inability on the part of the children to endure the exposures of school life, or to keep pace with others of their own age in learning. Without pretending to give an exact estimate of this number, we presume there are more than 200 of this class in the city; yet we prefer to place this estimate at a low point, because we have no means of ascertaining all the facts in the case. Taking this number from the 2,927, we have 2,727 left to be accounted for.

5. There is a very large class of young persons between about twelve and eighteen years of age who are necessarily engaged in some daily occupation for a livelihood, such as young servant girls employed in families, news-boys, and errand-boys for offices and stores, and young apprentices of both sexes, who have begun early to learn trades. Though these persons are deprived of the opportunity of attending the day schools for the greater portion of the year, many of them take advantage of the evening schools established in different parts of the city for the special benefit of those who are thus obliged to commence laboring for their living before they have obtained an ordinary education, and also for the instruction of adults whose early education has been entirely neglected. These evening schools are established and conducted by associations of philanthropic persons of different religious denominations, and are supported by contributions from benevolent citizens, like many other charities. The teachers in these schools are generally well bred and well educated persons of both sexes, who volunteer their services, and in this way they do a great amount of good both by their direct instructions and by their examples of manners and habits worthy of imitation.

The city government has no care or control of these schools, and is not connected with them in any way, except as a liberal contributor, giving from \$1,200 to \$1,500 a year toward their support.

During the past twelve months over 1,800 persons were instructed in the six evening schools in the city, which were kept open from four to five months. From the statistics of these schools it appears that, at the lowest estimate, 600 of these persons were under eighteen years of age, and therefore this number should be deducted from the foregoing 2,727.

6. We have now 2,127 remaining, who are, so far as we can learn, growing up to maturity without much regular school education. Without attempting to give any very accurate information concerning the remainder, we must content ourselves with three remarks.

1st. It is highly probable that about one-third of this number is made up of apprentices over fourteen and under eighteen years of age, and who, of course, have no legal claim on their masters for any schooling. Such persons usually obtain a respectable common school education before entering their apprenticeships.

2nd. Perhaps another third consists of boys and girls between twelve and

fifteen years of age, whose straitened circumstances compel them to labor all the time, and who are engaged in various industrial pursuits, where their employers do not observe the law of the State forbidding all persons to hire or secure the services of any child under fourteen years of age, who has not attended some school for at least twelve weeks during the year preceding the time of entering upon service.

3rd. As the census with which we commenced includes all children in every condition of life, we must, in disposing of the remaining 700, allude to a class of children,—very small, we are happy to believe,—who, from extreme physical weakness, or other causes, are incapable of learning any considerable part of what constitutes a good common education, and for this reason do not attend any schools.

In compliance with the school regulations, I have endeavored to give this topic a thorough examination. I am unwilling to take leave of the subject without expressing my entire confidence in the substantial accuracy of the foregoing statements, and also expressing the belief that out of 32,174 young persons in the city who are "due at the schools," there are not more, on an average, than 500 absentees from school who deserve to be blamed for non-attendance."

Under "An Act concerning Truant Children and Absentees from School," passed by the legislature of Massachusetts in 1850, and modified in 1853 and 1854, the city of Boston has adopted ordinances to secure the general attendance of children at schools. Dr. Bishop presents the following main feature of the plan in actual operation.

"The territorial limits of the city are divided into three districts, and a 'Truant Officer,' so called, is appointed for each district. He is required to spend his whole time during school-hours in traversing streets, lanes, alleys and other places in search of absentees from school. These are of several different classes. One class is composed of the children whose parents have recently moved into the city, and who, being more or less indifferent to the education of their children, have neglected to find places for them at school. Whenever the truant officer finds any of these children idle in the streets of his district, he makes such inquiries of them as may be necessary to ascertain their condition. If he deems it expedient he accompanies them to their places of residence, and by conversing with their parents in kind and respectful terms, he generally succeeds in persuading them to send their children to school, without any show of his authority, which should always be kept out of sight until other means have failed, and then be exercised as a last resort.

Another class of absentees stay away from school for want of shoes or such clothes as will enable them to make a decent appearance among the pupils at school. By patient efforts, on the part of the truant officer, he can generally obtain from various sources such new or second-hand articles of wearing apparel as will keep this class of pupils respectably clad, and thus enable them to continue in school.

A third class of absentees is composed of children whose parents are so unfortunate, or idle, or vicious, as to require them to stay away from school for the purpose of gathering fragments of fuel and of food for the family at home. The officer can do much in his district to diminish the number of this class of absentees, but in cases of extreme poverty the absence can not be prevented, for necessity knows no law.

The fourth and last class embraces the idle and dissolute runaways from school, who not unfrequently absent themselves against the wishes and commands of their parents. Even such children the officer tries to win back to habits of attendance and good conduct, and is often successful. But, when other means fail, he complains of the offender, who is arraigned according to law, and if found guilty is sentenced to some reformatory institution for a period varying from one to two years, where he will be instructed in the common school studies, and also taught to labor at some trade. In some cases the child is sentenced to the State Reform School during his minority, not so much to punish him as to save him from apparent ruin, and to give him an

opportunity of growing up under good influences, and of becoming a good member of society.

During the year the three truant officers have investigated about three thousand instances of absenteeism. It must not be inferred, however, from this statement, that three thousand different children have required attention from a truant officer. Probably one thousand children, or even less, have occasioned this number of visits, as an officer has sometimes been obliged to call on the same individual six or eight, or even ten times during the year to keep him in school. About one-third of the one thousand absentees do not deserve to be blamed for not being in school, while the remainder are more or less censurable for their absence.

The truant officers have, in the course of the year, complained of one hundred and twelve children as idle and dissolute, and about one hundred of them have been committed to various reformatory institutions, where they will receive proper instruction and discipline, and enjoy the means of reformation."

There are three grades of schools, viz., 202 Primary Schools, with 14,405 pupils; 18 Grammar Schools, with 10,629 pupils; and 3 High Schools, (1 Latin, 1 English, and 1 Girls' High School,) with 495 pupils. The following particulars are gathered from the tables of the Superintendents' Reports.

<i>Primary Schools</i> —Number of schools,	202
Attendance—Boys, 6,604; Girls, 5,801. Total,	12,405
Teachers—Females,	202
<i>Grammar Schools</i> —Number,	18
Attendance—Boys, 5,301; Girls, 1,328. Total,	50,629
Teachers—Masters, 21; Sub-masters, 20; Female Assistants, 166.	
Total,	207
<i>High Schools</i> —Number,	3
Latin School—Attendance—Boys,	198
Masters, 1; Sub-masters, 1; Ushers, 1,	3
English High School—Attendance—Boys,	155
Masters,	5
Girls' High School—Attendance—Girls,	142
Teachers,	4
Total cost of School-houses, including land and repairs, to May 1st, 1856,	\$1,452,300.00
Whole number of children in attendance,	23,529
Expenses of schools for years 1854-5, viz., Salaries of Teachers, \$223,024.61	
Incidental Expenses,	67,977.34
Rate per scholar—On Salaries of Teachers,	9.39
" Incidentals,	286
" Total expenses per year,	12.25

The Superintendent submits the following remarks on the separation of the sexes in schools.

"In all the Primary Schools, except a few established for the special instruction of children over eight years old, little boys and girls are admitted without distinction, and are seated together in the same room. Sitting side by side they study their lessons, and stand up together in the class for reading and in all other school exercises. In short, they are trained up together in the same way as the boys and the girls in any well regulated family, where they are taught to observe the little proprieties of conduct due to each other. But on leaving these schools to enter those of the next higher grade, the pupils that have been associated for years in the same classes are separated,

and one sex is sent in one direction to a grammar school for boys, and the other in a different direction to a grammar school for girls.

There are some practical inconveniences arising from this plan of separating the sexes in the schools, which cause much unnecessary solicitude and trouble to parents. It separates the boys and girls of the same family, and thus deprives the younger children of the care and attention of their older brothers or sisters, which they so much need, especially in unpleasant weather, while going to and returning from school. But this evil is greatly aggravated by another arising from the same source. Having separate schools for boys and girls, usually doubles the distance which each sex is required to walk to school. If the weather were always fine, this would not be any special objection; but as it is often unpleasant, this plan compels the scholars to be out in the rain, or storm, or cold, or heat, twice as long as would otherwise be necessary, which must often keep the girls and the younger boys from going to school, and may sometimes injure their health by undue exposures in severe weather. But it is said that the advantages to be derived from the separation of the sexes in schools outweigh these and other objections. Without intending to enter upon a thorough discussion of this subject, I shall endeavor to present a fair view of the leading arguments which have been offered in favor of the plan, and also of those which have been urged against it.

On the one hand it is argued that a good and appropriate education for the girls in the grammar schools requires a course of studies different from one best suited to the wants of the boys in these schools, because the girls are to be called to a class of duties in after life entirely different from those in which the boys are expected to engage. On the other hand, it is said that this plausible assertion has no foundation in truth, because it is impossible to form a good course of studies for the girls in these schools which is not almost entirely confined to reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history and exercises in English composition, and this is the very course pursued in the grammar schools for boys. In further proof of this it is stated that, although separate schools for the girls have been in operation for many years, no such course has ever been introduced into them, and that the present course of studies prescribed for these schools, and the text-books required to be used in them, are almost identical with those prescribed for the boys' schools, and that the slight differences which may now exist in the books in use did not spring from any endeavor to adapt them to the different sexes.

But the advocates of separating the sexes in schools for children claim that on this system the boys and the girls, especially the latter, may be trained up to be more elevated in their tastes, more refined in their manners, and more thoroughly imbued with moral principles.

In reply, it is stated that these assertions are not entitled to any weight whatever unless supported by facts derived from experience, and that these facts lead to the opposite conclusion. It is asserted that it is not true that those persons who have been chiefly educated in separate schools have acquired purer tastes, more cultivated manners or better moral principles than others who were educated in mixed schools. In support of this, certain towns and cities are named in which mixed schools were changed into separate schools; for the purpose of securing these benefits, but, after a few years' experience, these schools were changed back again, because the legal guardians of them were convinced that the separation led to the use of coarser speech among both boys and girls, and to ruder manners and more lax morals, especially in regard to speaking the truth in relation to their participation in the various mischiefs and disturbances in which active school children are apt to become entangled.

To these considerations I append two sketches,—one of a boys' school, drawn by De Quincey, who is ranked among the best English writers of the present day; and the other from the pen of Mrs. Jameson, who stands in the highest rank of female writers both in England and in this country.

De Quincey is describing the influence on himself, received from conversing with females in regard to his studies, while he was yet a schoolboy.

"Then first and suddenly were brought powerfully before me the change which was worked in the aspects of society by the presence of woman; woman, pure, thoughtful, noble, coming before me as Pandora crowned with perfections. Right over against this ennobling spectacle, with equal suddenness, I

placed the odious spectacle of school-boy society;—no matter in what region of the earth,—school-boy society, so frivolous in the matter of its disputes, often so brutal in the manner; so childish, and yet so remote from simplicity; so foolishly careless, and yet so revoltingly selfish; dedicated ostensibly to learning, and yet beyond any section of human beings so conspicuously ignorant.'

On this passage Mrs. Jameson remarks:—

'There is a reverse to this picture, as I hope and believe. If I have met with those who looked back on their school-days with horror, having first contaminated them with 'evil communication!' I have met with others whose remembrances were all of sunshine, of early friendships, of joyous sports.

Nor do I think that a large school composed wholly of girls is in any respect better. In the low languid tone of mind, the petulant tempers, the small spitefulnesses, the cowardly concealments, the compressed or ill-directed energies, the procacious vanities and affectations, many such congregations of young girls would form a worthy pendant to the picture of boyish turbulence and vulgarity drawn by De Quincey.

I am convinced from my own recollections, and from all I have learned from experienced teachers in large schools, that one of the most fatal mistakes in the training of children has been the too early separation of the sexes. I say, *has been*, because I find that everywhere this most dangerous prejudice has been giving way before the light of truth and a more general acquaintance with that primal law of nature, which ought to teach us that the more we can assimilate on a large scale the public to the domestic training, the better for all. There exists still, the impression,—in the higher classes especially,—that in early education, the mixture of the two sexes would tend to make the girls masculine and the boys effeminate, but experience shows us that it is all the other way. Boys learn a manly and protecting tenderness, and the girls become at once more feminine and more truthful.

When I have seen a class of girls stand up together, there has been a sort of empty tittering, a vacancy in the faces, an inertness, which made it, as I thought, very up-hill work for the teacher; so when it was a class of boys, there has been often a sluggishness,—a tendency to ruffian tricks,—requiring perpetual effort on the part of the master. In teaching a class of boys and girls, accustomed to stand up together, there is little or nothing of this. They are brighter, readier, better behaved; there is a kind of mutual influence working for good; and if there be emulation, it is not mingled with envy or jealousy. Mischief, such as might be apprehended, is in this case far less likely to arise than where boys and girls, habitually separated from infancy, are first thrown together, just at the age when the feelings are first awakened and the association has all the excitement of novelty. A very intelligent school-master assured me that he had more trouble with a class of fifty boys than with a school of three hundred boys and girls together, (in the midst of whom I found him,) and that there were no inconveniences resulting which a wise and careful and efficient superintendence could not control. 'There is,' said he, 'not only more emulation, more quickness of brain, but altogether a superior healthiness of tone, body and mind, where the boys and girls are trained together, . . . and it extends into their after life;—I should say because it is in accordance with the laws of God in forming us with mutual sympathies, moral and intellectual, and mutual dependence for help from the very beginning of life.'

In a moral point of view this subject presents a question of the gravest character. All persons, whatever may be their speculative notions, must give the preference to that mode of educating the young, which, as a general thing, produces the most perfect development of the human character and thus best fits the pupils, while in school, to sustain themselves well amid the temptations and the duties of life.

In the many thousands of Sunday schools which are established expressly for promoting the moral and religious education of children and young persons, the theory of separating the sexes and of placing the boys in one room by themselves, and the girls in another, for the purpose of securing better results, has never been approved, although hundreds of good men have been trying for years to devise ways and means to increase the efficiency of these schools.

The propriety of referring to this subject in this report will become apparent to all, when it is known that, during the ensuing year, three large and commodious school-houses will be completed and placed in the possession of the school committee, ready for the reception of pupils. The locations of these houses are such as to render it necessary to have both sexes in the same building, and in this way the question of having them in the same, or in separate rooms, is forced upon the attention of the board, and they must decide it. All the new houses are built in such a manner that the boys and girls have entirely separate entrances to the building and separate play-grounds. If placed in the same rooms *they will not be together anywhere, except in the presence of their teachers*, and, in addition to their authority, the sexes, by their mere presence, never fail to exercise a salutary influence over each other whenever they are brought together under such wholesome restraints. This influence springs from a natural law which pervades the human race,—one that is implanted in the very constitution of the sexes, and seems to have been intended by the Creator as an important means of governing and guiding the young, and of calling into activity the higher principles of self-control. Whenever this natural force is dispensed with, it has been found necessary to introduce some other, in order to secure a proper control over the young. Instead of this influence, which always elevates the character of all whom it controls, corporal punishment has been introduced,—*necessarily* introduced,—into the separate schools for boys. It is not here stated or implied that there would be no necessity for resorting to corporal punishment in the schools where the sexes are under the influence of each other's presence; but it is fully believed that a large portion of what is now deemed necessary in separate schools for boys would be uncalled for, and the teachers would be spared the extremely unpleasant task of inflicting it.

In making the foregoing suggestions on this subject, I am fully aware that the question of having separate or mixed schools is not free from embarrassments; but after an impartial view of both sides of the case, I am inclined to give the preference to that which seems to be indicated by the Creator in placing children of both sexes together in families, and which is indicated still more clearly in the early manifestations of a desire implanted in each sex to be respected and esteemed by the other. This sentiment naturally leads children of different sexes, who are permitted to associate with each other under proper supervision, to the formation of habits of neatness and order, and to the cultivation of amiable manners, refinement of mind and a high tone of moral feelings.

But those parents who allow their sons and daughters to go away from home in the evenings, and at other times, to places where the sexes will meet together under far less restraints than would always be felt at school, will look in vain for these improvements in the character of their children. The solicitude of many parents in regard to the conduct of their children in this respect, seems to be strangely misdirected. They are extremely desirous of sending their daughters, who attend the grammar schools, to those buildings which are occupied exclusively by girls, so that they may be kept entirely from the sight of boys of their own age, during the broad daylight of school hours. But when the sun has gone down and the shades of evening are deepening into the darkness of night, then many of these same parents often permit their daughters to go to parties or gatherings for social enjoyment, or to various other places of amusement, where they will be sure to meet, and not unfrequently to walk the partially lighted streets, with the very boys whose presence in the open light of day, under the watchful eye of their teachers, was deemed unfavorable to the moral culture of the girls.

The beginnings of nearly all those improprieties of conduct into which the indiscretion of children and youth often leads them, may be traced to the unguarded social intercourse during the evenings, which their parents have, perhaps, thoughtlessly allowed. Few children and youth, who have uniformly spent their evenings under proper influences, have failed to become ornaments to their families and blessings to society. On the contrary, those who have generally spent their evenings among their companions, without being under the salutary restraints and the kind advice of judicious persons, have rarely

failed to bring down the gray hairs of their parents in sorrow to the grave, and to become worse than useless to the world.

I would advocate the greatest caution in regard to the social intercourse of boys and girls while at the week-day school, the Sunday school, and at all other places where they are in the habit of meeting in the *day time*, and I must respectfully but earnestly urge parents,—and I am sure that all careful observers of the young will unite with me in urging them,—to turn their attention and watchfulness especially to the places, the company and the manner in which their children,—such as are in the grammar schools,—spend their evenings. Parents should spare no pains that may be necessary to inform themselves on these points, and to throw around their sons and daughters the strongest moral safeguards. For it is well known that the lower passions of the human race slumber during the daytime, like certain wild animals, and, like them also, when darkness comes, awake hungry for their prey."

PHILADELPHIA.

The following statistics are taken from the Thirty-seventh Annual Report of the Controllers of Public Schools for 1855.

"The whole number of schools in 1855 was 303, namely, 1 High School, 1 Normal School, 56 Grammar Schools, 47 Secondaries, 156 Primaries, and 42 Unclassified schools.

The whole number of teachers was 935, of whom 81 were males, and 854 females.

The number of scholars belonging to the schools was 54,813, of whom 28,152 were boys, and 26,661 were girls. These items, as compared with those of the year previous, show an increase of not less than 15 schools, 59 teachers, and 2,740 scholars.

The increase of 2,740 new scholars, during the year, required the employment of 59 additional teachers, which, at the rates already existing, still further swelled the item of salaries by about \$15,000.

The total amount expended by the Controllers during the year, was \$520,786.22.

It has been customary, heretofore, to divide the expenses into two principal heads, namely, those which are essentially temporary, as salaries, house-keeping, fuel, &c., and those which are permanent, and the use of which remains from year to year. Under the latter head are included building lots, school-houses, additions and repairs to the same, furnaces and stoves, and furniture generally. All these items are of the nature of a permanent investment, the annual interest only of the aggregate amount being chargeable to each year. The sums spent for these purposes in 1855, were for

New School Houses,	\$19,828.67
Additions and Repairs,	28,728.30
Furnaces and Stoves,	7,652.44
Furniture,	8,826.50

Total,	\$65,035.91
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The aggregate of the sums previously expended for these purposes from 1818, to December, 1854, (See Appendix,) amounted to

amounted to	\$1,171,787.10
Adding the amount for 1855,	65,035.91

Total,	\$1,236,823.61
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We have a total permanent investment in lots, houses, and furniture, of \$1,236,823.61. The interest on this sum at 5 per cent. (which is as much as other holders of real estate are wont to net after deducting taxes and repairs) is \$61,841.18. This sum of \$61,841.18 is really the rent at which the public schools in 1855 had the use of the school-houses owned by the city. The other rents (for houses owned by individuals, and leased by the Controllers, including also ground rents and water rents) were \$25,558.60. The total amount of these two items chargeable to the past year, under the general head of rent, as just explained, is \$87,399.78.

The whole amount expended in 1855, for incidentals, may be recapitulated as follows :

Fuel,	\$20,140.25
Superintendence and cleaning of school-houses, clerk hire, printing, and other petty expenses of the twenty-four sectional boards,	36,844.71
General expenses of the board of controllers,	12,081.14
	<hr/>
	\$69,066.10

The various items of cost, therefore, in teaching the pupils of the public schools, are reducible to these four heads, namely,

1. Tuition (salaries of teachers.)
2. Books and stationery.
3. Incidentals.
4. Rent of school-houses, including in the latter, not only payment for those buildings leased from individuals, but also interest on the cost of those owned by the city.

These items divided severally by 54,813, the whole number of pupils, show the precise rate of cost under each head to have been as follows :

Tuition, (salaries of teachers,)	\$294,316.19	rate per pupil,	\$5.37
Books and Stationery,	51,320.26	"	.94
Incidentals,	69,066.10	"	1.26
Rent,	87,399.78	"	1.59

Total expense of educating a pupil for one year,	<hr/>	\$9.16
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This statement includes everything, of every kind, legitimately chargeable. It includes, moreover, the expenses of the High School and the Normal School, as well as of the other schools.

When we call to mind the superior character of the instruction and the high state of discipline in the public schools, and consider that for so small a rate of expense,—only \$9.16 per annum, (a sum not so large as the ordinary cost of books alone in private schools,)—every child in this city may receive a really excellent education, and that more than fifty-four thousand of the children of this city are now receiving such an education, the controllers can not but feel, that they have reason to congratulate their fellow-citizens upon the condition of this important department of the public service, and to claim for it results commensurate with the expense.

The Grammar, Secondary, Primary and Unclassified Schools, (leaving out the High School and the Normal School,) contain 53,772 pupils, and have cost for the year, under the three heads just named, as follows :

Tuition, (salaries of teachers,)	\$269,597.86	rate per pupil,	\$5.01
Books and Stationery,	49,754.09	"	.92
Incidentals,	66,101.62	"	1.23

Total,	<hr/>	\$7.16
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The Normal School contains, besides its 210 normal pupils, 230 children in its school of practice. Whatever these 230 children would have cost, if taught in one of the grammar or secondary schools, ought to be deducted from the sum total of the expenses of the normal school, in order to ascertain the amount legitimately chargeable to normal pupils. The average rates of expense in the other schools have just been shown. According to these rates, the 230 children in the school of practice would have cost, had they been taught elsewhere, \$1,152.30 for tuition, \$211.60 for books and stationery, and \$282.90 for incidentals. Deducting these sums from the gross amount charged to the normal school, we have the following results as the legitimate expenses of the 210 normal pupils :

Tuition, (salaries of teachers,)	\$3,777.70	rate per pupil,	\$17.99
Books and Stationery,	570.72	"	2.71
Incidentals,	574.47	"	2.74
			<hr/>
Total,			\$23.44

The number of pupils attending the High School has been 601, and the expenses have been as follows:

Tuition, (salaries of teachers,) \$19,788.33 rate per pupil, \$32.92	
Books and Stationery, 783.85	1.30
Incidentals, 2,107.11	3.50
Total,	\$97.73

The High School continues to be managed with efficiency and economy. It has already, in the brief period of its existence, admitted 3,477 pupils to the advantages of its course of instruction, and those young gentlemen who have spent any considerable time within its walls, are generally regarded with special favor by the business men of the city. The intense competition among the pupils of the lower schools, to become partakers of its benefits, is of itself an immense advantage. It produces a vigorous and healthful activity throughout the system."

The Principal of the High School, John S. Hart, LL. D., submits the following remarkable statement respecting the punctual attendance of the pupils of his school.

"The attendance of the pupils of the High School is, in my opinion, worthy of remark. I take the greater pleasure in quoting it, because, according to my experience and observation, there is no more certain test of the condition of a school than the state of its attendance. No one fact shows more conclusively the interest which the pupils take in their studies, or the general efficiency of the instruction and discipline in the several departments. From an examination which I made several years ago into the records of the public schools under the Lancasterian system, I found that the average rate of absenteeism for a series of years was more than 33 per cent. In some of those same schools now, the absenteeism has been reduced to a rate that is almost nominal, not more than 4 or 5 per cent. In the High School, during the last term, the highest rate of absenteeism was only 3 per cent., namely, during the first month, when a considerable number of pupils were away during the whole of the first week, through a misapprehension of the day on which the session was to begin. The next highest rate was during the extremely cold weather, in the month of January. Even then, it rose to only 2.97 per cent. The lowest rate was during the fourth month of the term, when it was only 1.5 per cent. The average rate of absenteeism for the whole term, was 2.2 per cent. The greatest number of absence on any one day, was on the occasion of the great snow-storm, on the 3d of January, when forty-six pupils were absent. The best attendance during the term, was on the 25th of October, and the 20th of November, on each of which days there were only three absent out of the whole school. There were seven days in the term, on which there were only 5 absent. The class whose attendance was best, was Division A. One of their number was absent for two weeks, with the varioloid. With this exception, there were out of the whole class only 3 absent during all the first month, only 1 in the fourth month, 1 in the fifth month, and none at all in the second and third months. In connection with these facts, it should be borne in mind that many of our pupils have to come a distance of several miles, and that the average distance which they have to come is more than a mile and a half."

The training of the pupils of the High Schools in composition is treated as follows:

"On three successive evenings of the week before commencement, public exercises in composition and declamation are held in the large lecture room of the High School. The compositions on these occasions, are written extempore, on subjects assigned on the spot, by some one in the audience. The subject is announced, and the writers begin to compose just before the declamation commences. When the declamation, which lasts about an hour, is ended, each writer is called upon to rise in his place, and read what he has written during the time of the speaking. These exercises are a better test of the intellectual training which the pupils have received, than any other which the school affords."

PROVIDENCE, R. I.

The following statistics and suggestions are taken from the *Annual Reports of the School Committee to the City Council*, and of the *Superintendent (Rev. Daniel Leach) to the School Committee*, for 1855.

Number of scholars admitted in spring, 1855,	6,620
Average daily attendance,	4,627
Average daily absence,	909

The committee submit the following remark as to a practice which is beginning to prevail in our manufacturing towns:

"The employment of children in our manufacturing establishments during the night time, has in the opinion of the committee, a most debasing influence on the character of that portion of our community dependent upon that labor for their support. It is a practice that should, if possible, be prohibited. Boys and girls alike are employed throughout the entire night during some portion of the year, thus reversing the order of nature, and turning night into day; and at that age, the bad effect upon the morals, upon the future character of these persons, can not be estimated. The day is spent partly in sleep, and partly in the street; and they are left to grow up in the lowest depths of ignorance, and consequently fit subjects for crime and vice."

The superintendent dwells at great length and ability on the evils of

IRREGULAR ATTENDANCE.

"The evil that first presents itself to my mind, is one of no ordinary magnitude, and I allude to it at this time, not because it exists in this city in a greater degree than elsewhere, but rather because its enormity is so great that it never should be lost sight of, until some judicious and appropriate remedy is found for its mitigation or permanent cure. I refer to the irregular attendance of children in our public schools. It is hardly possible to overstate the magnitude of this evil. It is one that has engaged the attention and awakened the anxious solicitude of the friends of education throughout New England. In our educational periodicals, and in the reports of committees and superintendents, eloquent and touching appeals have been sent forth to parents, and still this evil is shedding its saddening and blighting influences over the best schools in our land. The means and agencies that are now employed in the noblest of all causes, are failing to produce their legitimate results. Thorough and skillful teaching, united with vigilant and careful supervision, can accomplish, comparatively but little, when the attendance of pupils is inconstant and irregular. What can more effectually damp the ardor of a faithful teacher, and render nugatory his best directed efforts, than the frequent absences of his pupils? For in a school properly graded and classed, every instance of absence or tardiness produces, more or less, disorder and confusion, and seriously interrupts the onward progress of the class. When a pupil returns to school after a long or a short absence, the class to which he belongs must either wait in idleness, while he is fully prepared in that which they have passed over, or he must be subjected to the mortification of attempting to comprehend truths which can not be thoroughly understood without a knowledge of that which precedes. For there can be no intelligent study unless each preceding step is preparatory to a succeeding one.

The developing of the powers of the mind in their natural order, is of far more consequence than the simple knowledge of any number of facts, however important they may be. And this can be secured only by a gradual and uninterrupted process, analogous to that which we observe in nature, in the opening bud and the expanding flower.

The effect of irregular attendance on the discipline of the school is no less marked and striking. When scholars cease to be interested in their studies, they soon become proper subjects for discipline. A large majority of all cases of difficulty originate from this source. Instances are quite rare of pupils falling under censure, who are prompt and regular in their attendance at school.

But this evil is by no means limited to the school-room. The habits formed in early life have a powerful and abiding influence in determining the future career of every youth. And every system of education must be radically defective in which this is not regarded of paramount importance."

TRUANCY.

"There is still another class of youth who are habitually truants, whom no parental authority can reach, and no power but that of the law can bring under the influence of intellectual and moral discipline. Shall such continue to roam our streets, and early become initiated in all the debasing vices of our city, or shall the friendly arm of the law be extended to rescue them from utter degradation and ruin? Without the aid of some legislative enactment but little can be done by this committee to benefit this class. Active sympathy and moral suasion can accomplish something, but there can be no effectual remedy for this growing evil, unless there are compulsory measures to be resorted to when necessary. In many towns and cities in New England a truant law is enforced, which is accomplishing an incalculable amount of good. Might not a judicious law, wisely administered, produce similar results in this city?"

The annual report of the city auditor for 1855, exhibits the following items of expenditure for public schools:

Salary of Superintendent,	\$1,500.00
Teachers in High School,	4,037.00
Grammar Schools,	11,725.00
Intermediate "	9,183.34
Primary "	11,442.51
Colored "	1,336.67
Evening "	450.00
Aggregate of expenses for superintendence and instruction,	41,000.00
Incidental expenses, fuel, slight repairs, &c.,	15,000.00
Total annual expense of instruction and incidentals,	56,000.00
Expenditure for sites, &c.,	8,718.00
Total expenditure for public schools,	64,737.27
Expense for the reform schools,	16,633.87

The following items are gathered from the official census, taken in July, 1855, by Edwin M. Snow, M. D.

Population in 1855,	47,785
native born,	33,682
foreign born,	23,848
Number of persons between the ages of 5 and 10,	4,951
" " " 10 and 15,	4,266
" " " 15 and 20,	4,690
Number of persons who attended school in 1854-55,	7,916
" " " between 5 and 15,	6,233
" " " under 5 and over 15,	783
" " " public schools,	67,000
" " " Catholic and select schools,	1,286
" " " returned as not going to school,	2,984
Amount of money raised by tax in 1855,	\$300,000.00
Expenditure for public schools,	81,371.04
highways,	818,517.03
police,	41,592.00
support of the poor,	13,737.96

We shall continue our extracts from the official documents respecting public schools in other large cities and towns in the different States.

TABLE VIII.—POPULATION OF CITIES AND TOWNS IN THE UNITED STATES.

CITIES AND TOWNS.	Population of 1830.	Population of 1840.	Population of 1850.	Ratio of in- crease from 1830 to 1840.	Ratio of in- crease from 1840 to '50.
Bangor.....Me.	2,967	8,327	14,482	206.09	67.28
Portland....."	12,596	15,218	20,815	20.79	36.77
Augusta....."	3,960	5,814	8,295	48.51	54.77
Bath....."	3,778	5,141	8,090	36.25	56.00
Manchester.....N. Hamp.	877	3,235	13,992	268.57	390.67
Boston.....Masa.	61,892	83,838	126,871	35.01	45.56
Lowell....."	4,474	20,796	88,588	221.29	50.08
Balem....."	12,595	15,082	20,364	20.54	34.35
Roxbury....."	5,247	9,069	18,364	73.23	102.04
Charlestown....."	8,783	11,494	17,216	30.75	49.91
Worcester....."	4,178	7,497	17,049	79.65	127.41
New Bedford....."	7,592	12,057	16,443	59.02	36.08
Cambridge....."	6,072	8,409	15,215	38.48	50.30
Lynn....."	6,188	9,887	14,220	52.06	52.02
Springfield....."	6,784	10,985	11,766	61.99	7.01
Taunton....."	6,042	7,645	10,441	26.58	36.57
Providence.....R. I.	16,832	23,171	41,512	37.65	79.15
New Haven.....Conn.	10,678	12,960	20,345	21.57	56.80
Norwich....."	5,161	7,239	10,255	40.28	41.09
Hartford....."	7,074	9,468	18,555	33.84	93.16
New York City.....N. Y.	197,112	312,710	515,507	55.64	64.85
Brooklyn....."	15,894	24,323	96,388	85.57	167.36
Albany....."	24,209	33,731	50,748	39.29	50.53
Buffalo....."	8,686	18,318	42,261	110.01	132.06
Rochester....."	9,307	20,191	36,418	119.08	80.29
Williamsburg....."	1,117	5,094	20,780	354.04	564.24
Troy....."	11,536	19,534	28,785	67.08	45.83
Syracuse....."	—	—	22,371	—	—
Utica....."	8,898	12,732	17,545	58.57	37.41
Poughkeepsie....."	7,222	10,006	18,944	38.54	39.25
Lockport....."	8,923	9,105	12,333	133.69	35.20
Oswego....."	2,708	4,665	12,905	73.58	161.62
Newburg....."	6,434	8,923	11,415	39.05	27.73
Kingston....."	4,170	5,824	10,233	39.66	75.07
Newark.....N. Jer.	10,968	17,290	28,891	57.85	134.95
Paterson....."	—	7,596	11,838	—	49.96
New Brunswick....."	7,531	8,463	73,287	10.62	54.58
Philadelphia City.....Penn.	20,462	93,665	131,276	16.04	29.53
Phila. Co., exclusive of the city....."	106,835	164,872	287,286	51.72	74.53
Pittsburg....."	13,568	21,115	46,601	66.00	120.07
Alleghany....."	2,901	10,089	21,961	260.19	110.73
Reading....."	5,856	8,410	15,748	42.61	87.25
Lancaster....."	7,704	8,417	12,865	9.25	48.09
Wilmington.....Del.	—	8,267	13,979	—	67.07
Baltimore.....Md.	80,620	102,818	169,054	26.02	65.32
Washington.....D. Col.	18,226	22,224	40,001	24.01	71.02
Richmond.....Virg.	4,055	20,156	27,482	222.35	34.36
Norfolk....."	9,814	10,920	14,226	11.26	31.19
Petersburg....."	8,222	11,186	14,010	33.81	25.08
Wheeling....."	5,276	7,885	11,291	49.45	44.44
Charleston.....S. Car.	20,289	29,261	42,955	—	46.96
Savannah.....Ga.	7,202	11,214	16,040	53.57	48.91
Mobile.....Ala.	3,194	12,672	20,513	296.74	61.87
New Orleans.....La.	49,326	102,192	119,460	105.09	16.59
Lafayette....."	—	8,207	14,190	—	842.46
Memphis.....Tenn.	—	2,026	8,839	—	326.27
Nashville....."	5,556	6,929	10,473	24.48	51.21
Louisville.....Ky.	10,241	21,210	43,196	105.01	103.65
Cincinnati.....Ohio.	24,831	46,838	15,486	86.61	149.11
Columbus....."	2,435	6,048	17,888	148.37	105.63
Cleveland....."	1,076	6,071	17,084	464.21	180.57
Dayton....."	2,860	8,067	10,977	105.66	30.92
Chillicothe....."	2,546	8,977	7,100	29.74	73.52
Zanesville....."	3,094	4,762	7,922	54.04	66.36
Madison.....Ia.	—	8,793	8,005	—	110.76
Chicago.....Ill.	—	4,470	29,968	—	570.81
Detroit.....Mich.	2,222	9,102	21,019	209.63	130.92
St. Louis.....Mo.	4,977	16,469	77,860	230.09	879.76
Milwaukee.....Wis.	—	1,712	20,061	—	1,071.78

IV. CONSOLIDATION AND OTHER MODIFICATIONS OF AMERICAN COLLEGES.

BY RT. REV. ALONZO POTTER.*

THIS occasion seems to me to furnish an omen of national interest; may I not add, of world-wide interest. As connected with higher education—with the administration of Colleges and Universities—it appears to furnish, at least, some hope that several movements, which I believe are imperiously needed, may, at no distant day, be secured.

In the first place, this is a consolidation of two independent collegiate institutions, and as such, I hail it as an event which might be repeated in our own State, and throughout the land, with the utmost advantage. Hitherto the tendency has been to multiply colleges, and to isolate them. There are now some hundred and fifty colleges in the United States. They all claim to stand on the same level, to teach the same branches, and to have the same right to public confidence and support. Resources which, if concentrated, would have been ample for the thorough endowment of a few institutions, have been so scattered, and so large a part of them have been so improvidently expended, that nearly all our colleges are crippled for want of libraries, apparatus, and a competent staff of accomplished teachers. In their relations to each other, there is neither affiliation, subordination, nor—except casually—even co-operation. With a population greater than that of Britain, we are without one University proper. Our college system is now, in respect to organization, where our common or public school system was before the establishment of High Schools. The citizens of Lancaster know how that one measure infused new life and vigor into the whole school system of this town—how, by a proper distribution and gradation of work, the teaching has been improved in every department; and a portion of the pupils carried forward much further than formerly. What has thus been done for common schools needs to be done for colleges. If they would not be distanced in the work of progress and improvement, they must no longer remain in a state of estrangement from each other. They must contemplate the necessity of hearty co-operation, if not of combi-

* Remarks at the formal opening of Franklin and Marshall College—formed by the consolidation of two chartered institutions—Franklin College located at Lancaster, and Marshall College, located at Mercersburg.

nation and consolidation. *They must prepare the way for the open University* which, like the Universities of London and France, may be merely an organic center for purposes of supervision; or it might be constituted by a Board of Professors delegated from different colleges, and giving, personally, higher courses of instruction at some convenient point. I hail the union of Franklin and Marshall College, in the hope that we are on the eve of a general movement among similar institutions towards more of centralization.

II. In another respect, this event seems to me to be auspicious. I observe among your Professors, one gentleman, at least, who was reared in a Foreign University, and who has held an honorable post as teacher in a College in Southern Europe.* I hear too, that a distinguished German Professor, who, several years since, was invited to leave his fatherland for a chair in the Theological Faculty of Marshall College, has been invited to become your President.† Though I have not the honor of his acquaintance, and can presume to have no opinion of his qualifications for such a post, yet there is one reason why I earnestly hope he may accept this place. I desire to see the example followed which Marshall College has given. In almost every country of Europe, there are men of high endowments, of admirable erudition, capable of giving instruction to the most advanced students, who are yet languishing in obscurity and poverty. Such talent exists in Germany to so great an extent, that the intellectual and scholastic market is actually glutted. Here it is far otherwise. Pursuits of a more exciting and engrossing nature absorb, with us, the energy and enthusiasm which are given among the laborious earnest-minded Germans to literary toil. We import their laboring population by thousands—we import their accomplished artisans and agriculturists—we import from all the countries of continental Europe, teachers in the rudiments of their respective languages. Why should we not have a portion of their illustrious scholars and *savans* also. Where can they find a larger field, or the promise of better pecuniary remuneration?

This policy is recommended by various considerations—and there are special reasons why it should originate in Pennsylvania. This State has one characteristic, till recently, almost peculiar to it, but which is fast growing to be the characteristic of our nation. It is the somewhat heterogeneous nationalities that are represented in its population. Not only Old and New England, but Germany, Scotland, Wales and Sweden, have long had within this Commonwealth colonies of their people. This will soon be the case with every part of the United States. Ingredients, which have hitherto been regarded

* Professor Kappeler.

† Professor Schaff.

as incongruous and discordant, are seething in our great national cauldron, and we confidently expect to see them fused and blended into one harmonious whole—penetrated by the one American spirit. This result will be sure and speedy, in proportion as the culture which we apply to the rising generation is large-minded and liberal—having respect to national peculiarities and combining, in a wise eclectic spirit, the methods of different fatherlands. Where can such a policy originate so properly or so readily as in Pennsylvania? *

There is another reason why it appears to me desirable that our higher instruction in this country should have an infusion from Germany. That country has given to the world an open Bible, the common school and the printing press. Wherever these its gifts are fully enjoyed—there a reading and thinking people must be formed. Combined, as they are in this country, with a free political system and with prodigious industrial activity, they make a nation of readers, a nation of workers and to some extent a nation of thinkers. Our intellectual activity is widespread and intense, and it associates itself intimately with active practical life. But the predominance of that life with us is not friendly at present to deep erudition or to profound and comprehensive thinking. We have literature, but we want ripe thorough scholarship. We have philosophies, but they are crude, presumptuous, and narrow. Errors and extravagancies—whether pertaining to speculation or to practical questions—swarm over the land, and in the absence of vigorous habits of investigation and of a copious learning, they perpetuate themselves to the equal injury and disgrace of our national character. To her other gifts, then, let Germany add one more. Let her scholars teach us the patience, the thoroughness, the unquenchable zeal and lofty enthusiasm with which subjects should be considered; and the manly frankness and boldness with which results should be announced. Let her assist in putting into our hands the true Ithuriel spear, one touch of which will suffice to unmask pretentious sophisms, and one-sided schemes, and ambitious, unscrupulous sciolism.

Would the German scholastic mind be injured by such an association with ours? No wise German will think so. I am not prepared to adopt the saying of a distinguished scholar (I think) of the fatherland, that while the English ruled over the sea, the French over the land, the sway of Germany was over the air. I honor the passion for the ideal, and the stern enthusiasm with which the most abstruse philosophical questions are discussed among that noble people. But no candid observer will deny, that while the Anglo-American is too much given to empiricism, the German is rather too much addicted to speculative dogmatism—too impatient of qualifying

theories by practice—too disdainful of the wisdom which comes only from a combination of high thought with active efficiency. Could the speculative tastes and liberal enthusiasm of the one be combined with the robust sagacity and indomitable enterprise of the other, we might inaugurate a form of culture, nobler and more beneficent than the world has yet seen. May we not hope that to promote such a blending and interpenetration of these national characteristics will be one of the cherished objects of Franklin and Marshall College?

III. I cannot but anticipate another benefit from this movement. The teaching in this college, I trust, will always be the result of earnest thinking, of profound research. It is time we had done with the notion that superficial men make the best teachers. It is a notion which has been quite too prevalent in this country; the effect of it has been not only to emasculate our teaching, but to paralyze the studies of our professors and instructors. It has taken from them that stimulus to daily effort, to continued freshness of thought and ardor of inquiry, which ought to have been supplied by their profession. The universities of Germany contain a great practical refutation of this pestilent heresy. The most popular teachers have been their ablest thinkers and profoundest scholars. They—and the remark applies in some measure to the professors of Scottish universities—have shown that a talent for elementary exposition is perfectly compatible with habits of the most devoted and intricate research—that, in truth, each promotes and is promoted by the other.

And the same lesson has been taught in the public schools of this city. There are those present who remember well a modest, unobtrusive teacher, in one of those schools, who was always assiduous and successful, especially in the department of mathematics. He left here a few years since to become a teacher of the same branch in the Academy at Pottsville; and scarcely had he departed, before the scientific men of both hemispheres were startled by the tidings that from that remote and obscure institution had emanated a discovery which was to rank forever by the side of those which have made the names of Kepler and Newton so illustrious. While a resident of Lancaster, Mr. KIRKWOOD was slowly but surely elaborating that law or principle which bears his name. Let his example teach us then, that clear and interesting teaching in the class-room, is not inconsistent with profound thinking in the closet. Let it imprint upon the soul of every professor a sense of the debt which he owes, as an original inquirer, to the department of science or letters which he has in charge. Let it inspire all—teachers and pupils—with the generous ambition to make colleges, here and now, what they were in the days of Abelard in Europe—places all alive

with mental activity, places consecrated to the most earnest and independent inquiry.

IV. there is one more feature which will, I trust, always characterize the influence sent forth from Franklin and Marshall College. An institution bearing such a name would be recreant to all the promises its name implies, if it did not encourage public spirit and a large-hearted sympathy with humanity in all its forms and interests. Franklin began every day by asking himself, "What good can I do to my fellow men to-day?" he closed it by asking, "What good that I might have done to my fellow men to-day, have I left undone?" He who lived by such a rule could not be less than the benefactor of all men. He came to Philadelphia a poor apprentice boy. He lived to found its great Library, its Philosophical Society, its University, with many provisions for its material prosperity. He lived to be the almost idolized citizen of his adopted town and State, and the profoundly honored and trusted sage of the whole land. Yet never, when wearing his highest honors, did he forget the humble origin from which he sprang; never did his heart fail to beat with kindness and consideration towards all who needed his succor or his counsel. And John Marshall, too, how kindly and genial was his spirit? How free from arrogance! Be this the spirit that shall ever reign here. Not our Pennsylvania Germans alone, many others have dreaded colleges as nurseries of a silly aristocratic pride—as places where young men, coming from plain but respectable and worthy homes, would learn to despise them; as schools where they would be taught to put scorn upon the institutions of their country or the demands of their age. The gentleman who preceded me has adverted to these impressions. Erroneous as they are, they have continued to live because the follies of young men, and the mistakes of their teachers, have sometimes given countenance to them. Colleges in our land, like Universities in England, have sometimes been slow to feel the progress of society. They have fallen back upon their privileges; they have cultivated too little sympathy with the public mind which it is their office to guide and instruct. They have asked the people to sustain and cherish them; but they have sometimes forgotten that "love is the loan for love." They would have the masses feel great interest in the colleges, but they do not always think it necessary that the colleges should care much for the masses.

Here, we trust, is an institution where such a spirit will be unknown. If there are men who, more than all others, should have pulses throbbing with a large humanity, with a generous patriotism; it is they who are in contact with the fountains of thought, and whose business it is to trace the history of our race in its literature, and in all its strug-

gles for a fairer and happier lot. Let teachers and pupils emulate each other in love for their kind, and in quick sympathy for every effort which would promote the greatest happiness of the greatest number. Let them honor that which is most worthy of honor; and when they go out to mingle with the sons of toil, let them put no slights upon it. Let them own its intrinsic dignity; let them strive that it may be associated with a higher culture; let them so bear themselves that it shall be seen that a college is the true home for large minds and large hearts—for spirits that are enlightened and refined enough for the highest, and kindly and courteous enough for the lowliest in the land.

V. I cannot conclude without expressing my devout hope that this college may be administered in the spirit of *faith*. "If thou canst believe, all things are possible to him that believeth." Aim, friends, at *great things*. Doubt not, that if true to yourselves, God will empower you to do great things for yourselves and for mankind. Lancaster has her model farms and her model mills: why should she not have her model college? not one where there shall be many students badly taught and badly governed; but where there shall be at least a few so taught and so guided that they shall be *model students here* and *model men abroad*. Young men, who form the first classes in Franklin and Marshall College, be models of diligence—be models of self-respect—be models of scholar-like enthusiasm. You shall thus kindle a spirit here which will burn on steadily from class to class, and which will make you benefactors to this college, and to your successors, beyond the bounds of your utmost ambition. Gentlemen of the Faculty! let *nil desperandum* be your motto. Never despair of your pupils, of your Trustees, of yourselves. Let no obstacles dishearten, no failures weary. Be enthusiastic students, that you may be attractive and powerful teachers. Be vigilant, but loving and long-suffering disciplinarians, that you may knit these young hearts to you as with hooks of steel. And, gentlemen of the Board of Trustees, doubt not that, with a liberal steady policy, with unyielding enthusiasm, you shall find your fondest hopes and wishes realized. Cherish this seat of letters, this home of liberal arts; endow it largely with all means of instruction. Let its libraries, its museum, its halls of apparatus, teem with appliances for the best teaching and the best illustrations. As individuals, imitate the noble benefactions which men of successful enterprise in New England think it a privilege to bestow upon their seminaries of learning; and do not permit yourselves to close your eyes on life, without having left behind you here some honorable memorial of your zeal in behalf of Religion and of Learning.

V. A NATIONAL UNIVERSITY.

REMARKS AT THE OPENING OF THE FIFTH SESSION OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION
FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION, 1855.

BY ALEXANDER DALLAS BACHE, LL.D.

It is the custom of the Association that the President of the last meeting introduce to the members and the public his successor—in the present case too well known to need a formal presentation. Custom has not required the retiring officer to make an address on such an occasion, and I regretted to see that the standing Committee had expected one from me. Had my public duties permitted an attendance throughout the meeting, I would have endeavored at some other time to have met their wishes, but there was no prospect of this, and the pressure of my duties in the Coast Survey entirely precluded the thought of formally addressing the Association.

Allow me now, however, before yielding my place, to say a few words upon the themes which, had opportunity been afforded, I would have desired to bring in a more appropriate shape before you. These are, *a great University the want of our country, in this our time; and the common school and college, fragments of systems requiring to be united into one.* The various efforts made to establish a great University within the last thirty years, are well known to you. Recently, the institution appeared almost ready to take a body by legislation by the State of New York, and the several meetings at Albany,* seemed, by striking successively more and more forcible blows in the same direction, to promise that the wedge would be driven home. A great university in the full organization of its faculties of science and letters, and, if you please, of law, medicine, and theology, is, I am persuaded, the want of our country. Our young men in most of the professions realize more and more the deficiencies of their preparation for active life. They rise to a certain point by the force of ability and the strong effort of youth. They have no time for study and research, and immersed in purely practical labor, they go through the same round of effort, until by recurrence it ceases to be informing, and the mind ceases almost to grow. Many now go abroad to seek those opportunities which are not afforded them at home, and more give up in despair at the want of opportunity.

The mode of organization of such a university I cannot now touch

* A Convention of gentlemen, interested in the extension of the facilities of Higher Learning in the United States, was held in Albany in January and March, 1852.

upon, but would merely say a few words in regard to the relations which its faculty of sciences should sustain to education generally, and to the progress of science. The advocates of a general mental culture admit, that special schools also are desirable after the great foundation is laid, and while they believe that this latter should always be of the well cemented granite of classics and mathematics, admit that other materials may enter into the superstructure according to the design of the edifice;—that the engineer, the miner, the chemist, the metallurgist, the mechanic, the teacher, the farmer, should have special modes of training;—that history, English literature, moral and mental science, political economy, education, should all receive a higher treatment than is possible in our colleges, the courses of which are too short, and the pupils of which are too young to permit the necessary development. While the University gave thus the knowledge of the higher mathematics, of physics, of chemistry, and their applications, of natural history, geology, and kindred branches, and sustained a just relation to general education, it must lead in the advancement of science through the researches of its professors. Pupils should not only resort to it to learn what had passed into the books of the day, but what had been discovered by its teachers themselves. The living account of active research would thus inspire the pupils, and the professors would have not only hearers but followers. Such an institution requires a large endowment, not to be expended in costly buildings, but in museums, laboratories, collections of nature and art, and in sustaining liberally a corps of professors worthy of the institution and of the country.

There are in all branches of science enough men in our own country of the highest class of mind to adorn such an institution, and to make it the equal of the best establishments of the old world, to which our youth now repair in such numbers to gain knowledge, it may be at the expense of some things worth quite as much as knowledge. An institution supported by the State, into which admission should be obtained freely, would realize this idea. The corporation* of one of your own colleges has by the progress of material prosperity, the growth of commerce, and of the mechanic arts, and the consequent increase of population, been provided with the means necessary to carry out a great, free university. May the liberality of the designs of its Trustees, be in accordance with the magnificence of the endowment.

A consideration of the origin of our college system, and of the influences under which it has grown up, would show us that it is a fragment, not an entire body. The general diffusion of common

* The Trustees of Columbia College, by the rise in the value of real estate belonging to the institution will soon have a productive fund of at least two millions of dollars.

Cornell University (University of New Chapter)

school education, its great improvement, the establishment of High Schools and Free Academies, have opened another way to educated life. These two roads, like some railroads which the spirit of competition and speculation have created, run parallel to each other in part of their course in wasteful rivalry. The public purse, through taxation, is made to compete with the individual. The high schools do not fulfil their mission as thoroughly as they might if connected on the one side with the college and university, nor do the colleges fulfill theirs. The degrees authorized and conferred in some of the high schools, as in the colleges, may render the feelings of one institution less cordial towards the other, but are no index of successful competition either in the level of the courses, the abilities of the professors, or the thoroughness of the instruction. Public institutions, which, if connected would cooperate in elevating the standard of learning, are in some cases, it is to be feared, executing a different work. That intellect, various as it is, should be trained only in one way, is a dogma in which I have no faith, and which I think the whole experience of life refutes. If the common school were so organized as to be fit for all, as it is already in some of our cities; if it led to the high school and college, and these to the University, so that our youth who have the time and talent necessary, should find an open way from the beginning to the end of the system, these institutions would help, not hinder each other, waste of time, money, and intellect would be avoided, and the youth of our country be truly educated. England derives her great strength from the numerous foundation schools scattered over her limits through which a boy of intellect can be sure to find a place in the colleges of which her universities are composed; to take his rank in life according to his success there. The hardy spirits thus come to influence in the Law, the Church, and the State. France has recognized the diversity of roads to intellectual greatness, and has provided that they shall all be traveled.

I regret to be obliged to touch so imperfectly upon these things, but the suggestion of the topics in such a body as this, will secure their full consideration and a better discussion than I could give them, even if time were afforded for the purpose.

In speaking almost exclusively of intellectual training I have not forgotten that better part, of moral and religious education, but can not now detain you by even a passing thought upon it. The teachings of Science should, and I am convinced, are in the main such as to lead Man to a closer walk with God. He who muses with the Psalmist on God's works, will not neglect the higher musings on his Word.

VI. METHOD OF TEACHING GREEK AND LATIN.

BY TAYLER LEWIS, LL. D., UNION COLLEGE.

(Continued from page 295.)

We repeat the conviction. It is the continual pressure on the mind, the feeling of difficulty, of weariness, of obscurity, in other words, the painful sense of inadequate expression, that comes from the commonly used verbal mode of translating, which is the great obstacle in the way of progress, the great hinderance to rapid and extensive reading. The student never gets a clear conception of the whole thought in the mutually strengthening power of all its parts. Words readily suggest words; but, idioms do not, in like manner, suggest idioms. Remedy this,—remedy it from the start,—and the progress will be as rapid in one respect as in the other. Always accustom the pupil thus to translate from idiom to idiom, and a glance at a sentence suggests its general meaning, and its one best mode of expression, just as promptly as a single word in Greek calls out its corresponding word,—and, if a student has been well taught here, its best corresponding word,—in English, or vice versa. In knowing the idiom, as an idiom, and its true idiomatic representative among English idioms, he has the modern mould into which the thought runs; he has “a *form* of sound words,” which is promptly filled with the appropriate idea. The exercise of thus construing is as delightful as the other mode is painful. The pupil begins to think in Greek; and, this thinking is now unincumbered by those cloudy, suffocating media which are neither Greek nor English; being deficient vehicles of the sense in respect to the one, and barbarous combinations of words unknown to the other. We speak here what we do know. We have seen the countenance of an intelligent boy glow with light and pleasure, on being taught, or discovering for himself, how beautifully, how exactly, a Greek sentence may be made to run into English; not as a loose, sonorous paraphrase merely, but its precise *equivalent*; nothing lost, nothing added, nothing weakened or obscured by the transfer. The emotion, the spirit, the state of soul in which it was said, have been as completely set over as the bare thought itself,—if we can call it the thought, aside from these life-giving accompaniments. To show him this,—perhaps in one single well-chosen example,—may be like the sudden removing of a pressure, under which the mind has long been

bowed down. Taking this away, not only gives a freedom, but an elasticity, and a strength, unknown before. The soul springs up in its new liberty, and finds in it a stimulus that nothing else could have so effectually imparted. There is, too, the delightful sense of fitness, of harmony; which is, in fact, the elementary principle of all beauty. Yes, strange as it may seem to some, and dry and wearisome as the process has generally been, there is, indeed, in the right construing of a Greek sentence, a beauty like to that of music or architecture. The true English equivalent, once found, exactly holds the idea, and there is thus a stimulating pleasure in the perception that the new vessel, into which it is transferred, though it may be of a very different *form* from the old one, is exactly of the same capacity; in other words, holds just the same content of thought, without deficiency or overrunning.

Now, all this may be reduced to rules as exact as those of orthography or syntax. One chief peculiarity in Greek, as we have said, is its manner of using the participle. A half dozen rules, well framed, would give the student a method of determining, in each case, the one true principle of translation, and enable him to see, at a glance, the best English equivalent. The same might be said of the infinitive. In teaching the best modes of rendering the subjunctive and optative, such rules might be expressed, not in abstract technicalities, such as are found in German grammars, but rather as practical formulas, having special reference to our own tongue. This being once clearly done, any after philosophising would be equally applicable to both languages. But, the first teaching should be purely practical. The canons employed should be a continual reference from one speech to the other. So it is said in Greek, and so we say it in English:—here they use the participle, and, corresponding to it, we use the verb in a subordinate clause,—here they use the participle where we use the infinitive, and vice versa; thus they denote time, cause, instrument, and these are our methods; what the Greeks express by a change of mood, in what is called the *oratio obliqua*, we express by a change of tense; what they denote by certain impersonal forms, we denote by the varied auxiliaries of our potential mood. And, all this might be accompanied by clear illustrations, showing precisely, as it can be shown in every case, how it is that the idea is the same, and the force the same, and the total impression produced the same, though brought out by the use of greatly differing combinations of words.

To give some very familiar examples—the Greek, in a great many cases, uses impersonal forms where we use the personal or direct, and vice versa. Now, this difference must not be disregarded in a trans-

lation. A great part of all that belongs to our potential mood is expressed in the manner alluded to. Obligation, possibility, contingency, are denoted in Greek by impersonal verbs. But, to carry the Greek impersonal expression into English is not to translate. What we call our translation may be in English words, but it is not in English idioms, and, therefore, the work is only half done; the thought is only half set over; the spirit, the emotion, perhaps, are not set over at all. For example, $\delta\sigma\iota\ \sigma\epsilon$, $\chi\epsilon\gamma\eta\ \sigma\epsilon$, $\pi\epsilon\sigma\sigma\eta\mu\epsilon\iota\ \sigma\omicron\iota$,—*It is necessary that you*,—says the boy, in the wretched dialect permitted in the school-room,—*it behooves that you, it pertains to you*, to do so and so. Now, this is no more English than it is Greek. Teach him to say always, and insist upon his saying always, $\delta\sigma\iota\ \sigma\epsilon$, *you must*,— $\iota\sigma\sigma\epsilon\iota\ \sigma\omicron\iota$, *you may*. We might dwell here on the particles and the best directions that could be given for their analysis and expression; but, it would occupy too much time. The hints thrown out are sufficient for our general argument.

And here, since it connects itself so naturally with our main subject, permit the speaker to present a few thoughts on *oral*, as distinguished from what may be called the text-book instruction. In such a teaching by idioms, especially, would this oral method have to be largely practised. The living voice of the living teacher would be in constant demand. But, the remark may be hazarded, that the pure oral is the best mode of instruction in all departments of classical training. We mean by this that the recitation room, and the recitation hour, should not be so much for the purpose of hearing the lesson, as it is called, as for direct and positive instruction. The former object is, of course, an important one. The faithful teacher, however, can easily satisfy himself on this head; it needs no long time to tell whether a boy has been really studying. A few questions, skillfully put, will settle that; and then, the residue of the hour may be devoted to positive teaching, or the pointing out what may have been unnoticed in the lesson just read, and what will present peculiar difficulty in the one that is to come. In this way the hour in the recitation room should be the most profitable one of the day; the one in which the most knowledge is imparted and acquired. In carrying out such a method, all that would be absolutely needed would be the bare text, although books with notes, if accessible, need not at all be superseded. Helps are for the teacher. He may have commentaries and notes in abundance; but, in the recitation room, he himself should be commentator, note-maker, scholiast, grammar, and, sometimes, even Lexicon. The student is to take the law from his mouth; and, in this way, the boy learns Greek, at the same time that he habitually learns

another lesson, now so much needed, that is, deference to right authority as the true beginning of all right education, intellectual as well as moral. Necessity has sometimes driven the speaker to this plan. A desire to read with a class some author, or parts of an author, of whom there are no easily accessible school editions, has compelled a resort to the cheap German classics, which contain nothing but the bare text. As these furnish no help to the student, lecturing or oral teaching becomes an absolute necessity. Our decided conviction, however, is, that it is the best mode in all cases. Let the pupil have before him the bare text, accompanied by a memorandum book, in which he is to take down whatever is most important, or whatever he is specially required to take down. The teacher has all the helps he can command. Thus prepared, he devotes a portion, larger or smaller, of each recitation, or of some other hour set apart for that purpose, to the lesson to come. He has, himself, carefully studied it, as he should ever do, even if he had read it, or heard it recited, a hundred times. Even in the first five lines of the *Iliad*, he may discover something he had never seen before, something, too, which may be well worth telling to his class. Experience in this way has taught him just what his pupils most need, the very places where they will have difficulty, the very points from which they will be most likely to diverge into error. In a clear yet rapid series of remarks, he proceeds to point out such places. 'In that line,' he says, 'there is an unusual *form*,—examine it with special care, and be prepared to tell me all about it,—in that sentence there is an unusual construction; you will not be likely to find it out of yourselves; listen, then, carefully, while I explain it to you, and be sure you remember it under penalty of a mistake, here bringing a double discredit. In that place, there is something worthy of attention in a critical or rhetorical point of view. In another, there is a beauty in the thought, or an unusual neatness or point in a word; try and feel it, he should tell the class, or rely on my judgment in these matters if you cannot, as yet, fully trust your own; you will be able, by and by, to see the beauties and power of the classics; there is before you a rich harvest, if you will labor patiently for it; you shall certainly reap if you faint not.' Such a mode of teaching is, indeed, laborious; it may not always be the best for the more indolent pupils; but, none can be more effectual for the studious and intelligent, as none can present, for such, a greater stimulus to study.

But what need of such labor, it may be said, if the same instruction, perhaps better, can be given from the carefully prepared textbook? We are not at all inclined to depreciate the value of such

works, now in extensive use. We believe the oral method, thus pursued, would give them a deeper interest, and, thus, instead of superseding, create for them a greater demand. They would certainly be needed for teachers, if not for scholars. Yet, still might it be said, in answer to this objection, Text-books do not give *the same* instruction, they cannot give the same instruction. It will differ, both in quantity and quality, from that of a faithful, well-prepared teacher. Constant intercourse with a class is required to know just what they need, and just when and where they should be left to themselves. All teachers find that often the text-book fails just where help was most wanted, while it is often given gratis where little needed, if needed at all. This is not from ignorance on the part of the learned commentator, or from a desire to shun difficulties; but, because he cannot always know the real assistance demanded; whilst, at other times, a passage that has no grammatical difficulty, may possess for him a tempting literary interest, which expands his note to a useless size. But, there is a better answer still. Grant that the student may find precisely the same information in the notes of his text-book, still it has not the same value to him as when it comes, just the same, neither more nor less, from the lips of the present teacher. It does not make the same impression; it will not be so long remembered. The very fact of its being in his text-book makes him more careless about fixing it in his memory. It is there in the book, he thinks, and he can turn to it when he pleases. It is enough for him, therefore, that he applies it to his present need, and then dismisses it from his thoughts. All classical teachers are familiar with this. How repeatedly do students look up the same word, the same rule in their grammar? How often are they compelled to run to the same explanatory note in their text-book! Thus, oral teaching, besides having the interest and vivacity of the living voice, calls out more strongly the faculty of *attention*, and the proper cultivation of this is no small part of education. The student should be required, too, to take down what is most important, for the purpose of afterwards making a digest; and, this produces another valuable habit of *scientific order*. Lastly, the practice awakens him to a search for peculiarities, or to be ever on the look-out for them when they come in his way, and this produces that habit, or that talent, the most valuable of them all,—the *critical habit*, or faculty, which may be said to be the grand distinction between the one who will be, and the one who will never be, in any true sense, a classical scholar. This may often be best developed by general suggestive questions, instead of the usual minute explanation. For example, the teacher may content himself by saying, 'There is a diffi-

culty in such a sentence,—there is an unusual form in another,—in such a passage there is a slight peculiarity,—I do not tell you whether it is in the forms or the construction ; it is of no great importance, in itself, but, I would like to know whose critical eye will first detect it.' When such critical habit has been well developed, the teacher may, in one sense, regard his work as done. That boy will be a classical scholar. There is something waked up within him which will not sleep again, nor suffer him to be content with the common humdrum of the school grammar, or the scanty routine of reading that completes the common college course. There is nothing in all education like the charm of Latin and Greek, if rightly studied. There is nothing so painfully wearisome when taught, as they often are taught, to the ruin of all classical taste, and to the furnishing an almost unanswerable argument to the enemies of classical study.

But, let us advert briefly to some of the objections that might be made to this mode of construing. What we have called the idiomatic rendering might be admitted to be the more correct method for advanced pupils. But, for beginners, some might plead, the verbal or literal is, of necessity, the only true and practicable one. It is essential to correctness, they would say. When the commencing pupil is required to translate from idiom to idiom, does he not confound what is most peculiar, both in construction and form ? Ought he not, therefore, to adhere rigidly to these at first, and until he is familiar with the Greek and Latin idiom, after which he may be allowed more freedom ? But, alas ! in this verbal way he will never learn that an idiom is an idiom. He may think it a very odd kind of language, to be sure, whose translation requires him to put English words in such strange combinations ; but, he never learns it as an idiom in the Greek, distinctly contrasted with a corresponding but quite dissimilar idiom of our own. Hence, he never learns it, in fact, at all ; while he is commencing a process which may make him unlearn his own mother tongue, or so barbarize it as to make both Greek and English grammar objects of aversion to him all his life long. We would say then, *From the very beginning*,—from the very first lesson in the Reader,—let it be the standing rule, as invariable as the laws of the Medes and Persians, *good Greek must be rendered into good English* ; not only good English words, but good English idioms. Take a familiar example from the Latin. *Liber est Petro*,—a book is to Peter,—says the boy. Correct him at once ; and, tell him to translate correctly, thus : *Peter has a book* ; or, in certain aspects of the context, *it is Peter's book*. Now, it is English. Before, it was no more English than it was Latin. But, do you not confound case here

and government? That may be done by a blockhead of a teacher; but, there is no need of it whatever. The difference of idiom clearly pointed out, and insisted upon, such correct translation may furnish the very best occasion, the most intelligible ground, for explaining to the pupil that that idea of property, or rather of relationship, which we express by an active verb and an accusative or objective case, is, in Latin, denoted by a substantive verb and a dative of the person. There is no need at all of confounding the cases. On the other hand, this true mode of translating is the best means of bringing out their true offices, as most clearly seen in the idiomatic contrast. If the pupil's capacity will hold it, the teacher has now an opportunity to go still farther, and have a little talk about the philosophy of the matter. He may tell him how this difference of expression comes from a different mode of conceiving, or looking at, the same relation. But, the fact, and the correct practical expression of it, should ever go before the philosophy. The *thing itself* should ever be distinctly learned, as a fact, before the rationale is ventured upon. Otherwise it will be like our "inductive Algebras," or "Self-teaching English Grammars," which pretend to give the philosophy of rules, before the rules, and without the rules themselves, when such inductive philosophizing is, after all, merely a childish assuming of something which ever implies the very rule to be explained. It is outward teaching still, but, given in an obscure, an indirect, and an unmanly way.

And this leads to the remark, that in the right idea of a translation, there are three things to be kept in view. There is, *first*, the *thought or fact*; *second*, the mode of conceiving the thought or fact; and *third*, the supposed accompanying emotion, or state of mind, in the speaker or narrator. The first and third may be, and ought to be, transferred. We may have the thought, the whole thought, however remote from us the language in which it first appears, or however poor or imperfect the one to which it is to be transferred. There will always be some way of bringing it out. So also, we may have, in some way, set over in words, all that was expressive of the accompanying emotion, and which is ever more or less connected with the relation of the thought, to preceding or expected thoughts in the sequence of sentences. Hence the chief means of expression for this third element, will consist in the right use of emphatic forms and constructions, and especially in the management of those little joints of speech, called particles—insignificant, indeed, in their appearance, but often containing more of the soul of a sentence than all the other words in it. The second thing, or what we have called *the mode of conceiving the thought*, cannot be strictly transferred, if we would

preserve the idiom of each language; for it is this mode of conceiving that gives rise to the idiomatic difference. A different view of the relations between different parts or aspects of the thought, which is what we mean by the *mode of conceiving*, gives rise to different combinations in the words,—that is, to different idioms. Now these cannot be set over without destroying the very idea of translation. It would not be a transfer of a thought *clean* out of one language into another, but the taking up, with the thought, an actual part of the one language, or of what is peculiar in one language, and transplanting it into another and a foreign soil, where it must, in general, possess an unnatural and uncongenial existence.

As a general rule, then, the idiom is not to be transferred. It would defeat the very idea of translation. There are, however, special cases, where it would be not only allowable but desirable. In some cases it may be a matter of importance to transfer the very genius of one language into another; thereby to improve the latter, or give it a character it might not otherwise possess, and which it is desirable it should possess. This may be said of the translation of those works that are expected, and justly expected, to have an important influence on the deepest thinking of the nation into whose literature they are thus, not merely transferred, but *transplanted*. In such a work, therefore, as our English translation of the Bible, it was well to make the most of those pure Anglo Saxon idioms that are its beauty and its power, and yet to set over also many of the rich Orientalisms that had become consecrated by the thought, and would not well part with it, or allow it to assume another and a foreign dress. And so we may say generally of our religious and devotional language drawn from the Bible. An English clergyman, whose life and jests form the subject of a late popular volume, objects to keeping in our religious vernacular, such phrases as "putting on the new man," the "armor of righteousness," &c. They struck him as evidences, not only of cant, but of "penury of thought and expression." We cannot agree with his jesting Reverence, nor with the reasoning of the more serious John Foster, on the same subject. It seems to us as much at war with a true philosophy as it is with a true piety.

In such a work as the translation of the Scriptures, there is, oftentimes, a real value in the form, as well as in the idea, and, therefore, a demand for the preservation of both. Hence, too, the very fact of their extreme remoteness gives an interest to some of these Oriental idioms; their exceeding beauty lends a charm to others; there is besides, a moral value in these archaisms, as connecting us with the piety and pious thought of past ages of the Church; and for all

these reasons it was well to preserve them in our English Bible. They were at first strange, but they have enriched our tongue, and thus become a part of it. Many of these beautiful exotics, whose parent land was at the distant rising sun, now bloom in our Occidental garden, and in all that vigorous health which shows that this Divine Book was made for the West no less than for the East. They are now *our* idioms; and truth, as well as piety, revolts at the thought of parting with them.

A somewhat similar view may be taken in respect to some few standard works representative of an age; such as the Homeric Poems, and the early Ballad Literature of a land; but, in general, there can be no other true idea of a translation than the one we have given. It cannot transfer idioms without destroying such idea, and this should be a fundamental principle in the ordinary construing of the schools. Both languages should be kept in their integrity. Good Greek into good English. Any other principle would only lead to the destruction of all consistency in theory, and to an indefinable chaos in practice.

Idioms cannot be set over; but this only furnishes a stronger reason why their philosophy should be explained, when once the fact or difference itself is clearly recognized. And such explanation, when the proper time comes for it, every good teacher should be careful to give. A Greek idiom may be better than an English idiom, better we mean *per se*, and yet the latter should be preferred in a translation, or it is no true translation. That conception of the fact or thought from which the one idiom arose, may be more philosophically correct than that which gave birth to the other; but this only furnishes a more admirable occasion for the faithful teacher to hold it up, and the reasons of it, before his pupils. Take again our old example which seems to answer every purpose, ἀλγεί τὴν κεφαλὴν—*his head aches*. There is a deeper philosophy here in the Greek than in the English. With the Greeks in general, feelings, states, affections, and sometimes even outward partial bodily relations, were *conceived* as belonging to the whole personality. It was the man who ached, and not the head or the tooth,—the man in his entire individual personality, and not any particular member. It was akin to their doctrine of the State, or Paul's idea of the Church. The pain might be in the head causaliter, or seem to be there localiter, and therefore this subordinate fact, or seeming, was to be denoted, though by an oblique case; but it was really *the man* who ached, the *ipsissimus homo*, and therefore they very correctly made him the subject of the verb. We say *the head aches, the tooth aches*, as if the head

or the tooth were a personality per se, and could ache of itself, whether there was a man attached to it or not. We may doubt the philosophical propriety of our mode of conception, and consequent expression, but we *must* employ it as long as we talk English, or translate into English. There are, however, cases in Greek in which this mode of conceiving is carried too far—even to the very verge of absurdity—and then we have the advantage of them. In such examples the boy may be told that our idiom is the better one, and why it is so. Thus the Greeks apply this favorite *usus loquendi*, not only to inward personal states, but to outward personal, and even impersonal relations,—even to a man's clothing, or to his armor. Instead of saying the *quiver was hung* upon the man, they say, *the man was hung* the quiver. This is strange, but sometimes it becomes, to our ears, absurd and even ridiculous. The pupil is reading Aristophanes, and falls upon the odd expression, ἐξέκπη τῶφθαλμῷ, *he was knocked out as to his two eyes*, instead of, *he had his eyes knocked out*; or he is reading Æsop's Fables, and comes across the still more surprising sentence, ἀλώπηξ εἰς ποτε ἐν παγίδι ληφθεῖσα τὴν οὐρὰν ἀπέκοπη, "Once upon a time a fox being caught in a trap, *was cut off* as to his tail." Even the most rigid verbalist would hardly insist upon his verbal translation here. The whole animal suffered the pain undoubtedly, but it was really the tail that was cut off from the fox, and not the fox from the tail. In Greek, this mode of expression had become rigidly fixed to the real or implied personality. Thus employed, it conveyed, in the main, a profound philosophical idea; yet when extended too far, as sometimes the symmetry of a sentence, sometimes the mere phonetic harmony, tempted them to extend it into the outer relations, it became absurd.

To take other familiar examples of difference of idiom—with the Greeks *recollecting* is active; *memory* is reflexive or middle, as partaking both of action and passion; *forgetting* is also middle, and not unfrequently passive, or expressed by the verb taken impersonally with the person, instead of the thing, for its passive object. In English, *to forget* seems to be an active verb, as much so in use and appearance, as to *think*, to *love*, or to *strike*. But what does a man *do* when he *forgets*—what kind of activity is there in such a spiritual process? This surely is a problem that might puzzle all psychology, and all psychologists from Solomon to Kant. It would seem impossible that any language could have so absurd a development; and so, when we come to examine carefully, it is found that the Anglo Saxon word is really a negative, or the denial of an action, and that its first syllable is a negative particle. To *for-get* is *not to keep*, or to fail to

keep. Such familiar examples are enough to show that this idiomatic method of rendering, instead of keeping out of view the philosophy of language, does actually give the faithful teacher the best and most numerous occasions for dwelling on it.

He may go farther than this. When a fair opportunity presents itself, he may go back, not only from the thought or fact to the conception, or mode of conceiving the thought or fact, but also back of this to the national or ethnological temperament in which it must have had its historical origin. Thus, for example, the Latins said *agere gratias* to *act thanks*, as it may be rendered verbally, or to *thank*. More than this, they said *agere vitam*, to *live* and even *agere animam*, to *die*. What would seem still more strange to our Christianized conception, they said *agere poenitentiam*, to *act penance*, to *do repentance*, and the phrase has come into the Vulgate translation of the Bible, and made no little controversy, —far more than it need have done if we would only attend to the fair principles which should guide us in judging of a translation. The Romans could not well talk in any other way. This idea of acting or *doing* everything was in their very nature. All was outward, objective. They could not well conceive of anything, except as a *doing* something. The very name *poenitentia* implied pain, and that chiefly from without, as *penal* in some form. Hence they could, in no other way, approach that subjective idea which is in the Greek, *μετάνοια*. There is another Latin word, (*resipisco*), sometimes employed, but it is a poor and inexpressive term, having none of the pungency of *poenitentia*, whilst it falls far below the Greek. Doubtless the early Christian feeling did, to some extent, convert the Latin phrase from its heathen objectiveness, and bring it nearer to the more spiritual Greek conception. But in later times this old Roman notion again got the upper hand, and brought in the numerous mediæval *pains* and penances. It is not too much to say that much of the Roman Catholic asceticism had its nurture, if not its birth, in this Latin phrase. It appears so different, both in form and spirit, from the New Testament Greek word it is used to translate, that Protestants accuse the Romanists of willful perversion. But this is harsh. It came honestly into the earliest Latin Bibles from the very genius of the old Latin language. The readers of the Vulgate, may give it the old Roman sense, or the Christian sense, according to the predominance of piety, or of some other spirit, in their minds. But is it not at least a fair question, on the other hand, whether our Protestantism may not have gone too far towards the other extreme, and made the idea of penitence so wholly subjective, that it is in danger

of fading away into a mere intellectual abstraction, a mere *change of thinking*, totally abstracted from the inseparable Bible ideas of pain and humiliation. Nothing would so clearly show how much our thinking, yea our very religion, is affected by language, as the history of this and some similar phrases. Nothing proves more clearly the folly of those who would regard the study of language as the mere study of words, that is sounds, as they contemptuously mean, to the neglect of what they call things, or outward material realities.

We would conclude our somewhat extended discussion with a few practical inferences. And in the first place, a fair experience has convinced us that there is hardly any scholastic exercise that presents a better mental discipline than the constant practice of written translations from the Greek and Latin, made with the utmost care, and on the principles already unfolded. Allusion has been already made to its importance, in the study of our own language. When rightly done, there is no exercise in English composition that surpasses it. We mean that part of composition which has regard to the choice of best words and phrases; and there might even be assigned to it, without extravagance, no secondary rank in the very moulding of the conceptions, or as one of the chief suggestive aids to right thinking itself. What a fund of thought, of thought breeding thought in all directions, has a student acquired in the faithful well directed effort at finding the very best English words for the noble Greek words in a drama of Aeschylus, or a dialogue of Plato! How surpassingly fruitful of ideas must it be when, in a more advanced stage of his course, the same method is applied to an epistle of Paul, or the Gospel of John! But there may be taken a more general view of its effect upon the mind. The importance of mathematical discipline no one would think of calling in question. And yet we may well doubt, whether, in any mathematical exercise, there are brought into action, vigorous and healthy action, more powers of the human soul, than in the right study and translation of a difficult Greek sentence, viewed merely as a problem to be solved. The apprehension of its general structure,—the perception of the precise idioms presented,—the selection of the best words in one language to give the life as well as the general meaning of those in another,—the consequent examination of primary senses and metaphorical images,—the study of the subtle relations of thought, and of the kinds and degrees of emotion, involved in the use of the particles,—the comparison of leading and subordinate ideas as combined in that unity which, when rightly understood, is the charm as well as the power

of a long Greek sentence, and which we find it so difficult to preserve unbroken in our looser, less organic English—all this certainly furnishes, yea demands, a severe mental exercise that may well be compared with any that comes from the highest Geometry, or keenest analytical Calculus. The study of the mathematics renders the mind *acute*, gives it intensity and concentration; but we may fairly doubt whether it is equal to the proper study of language, for expansive and suggestive power.

Written translations thus studied, should be a frequent exercise of the school-room. The rules should be clear, practical, and rigidly enforced. For such a purpose, general formulas of this kind may be engraved on cards, or kept as standing mementos on the black-board.

Let there be nothing in the Greek unrepresented in some way in the English.

Let there be nothing in your English which is not a fair representation of something in the Greek.

Employ the most idiomatic expressions in one tongue to represent the corresponding idioms in the other.

Express the thought, the whole thought, and nothing but the thought, in good, plain, nervous English, such as should be used if we had to give the same idea in our own tongue without any appearance of translation.

In the selection of single words, pay the strictest attention to the primary or radical images in both tongues, so as to have, if possible, a correspondence in the pictorial as well as in the abstract meaning.

In all such cases, where there is a fair choice between two or more English words, prefer the purest Anglo-Saxon to those from Latin roots.

Be prepared to give your reasons for every word and phrase employed.

The best translation once determined, either by private study, or instruction in the recitation room, no departure from it to be allowed in subsequent readings or reviews, unless the student can show that his amendment is a real amendment, according to the principles here laid down.

Some might object that such a course, and especially this latter requirement, allows too little freedom of thought. It is at war with the modern doctrine of development. Boys, they say, should be rather encouraged to "express their ideas in their own language," and not learn things parrot-like, or be compelled always to say the same things in the same way. This sounds very fine; but, without going into any further argument on the matter, we would simply say of such a view, that our experience is against it. However fond we may be of democracy elsewhere, there can be rightly none of it in the school-room, any more than in the camp. *There* should reign the most perfect autocracy, or the imperium of one governing mind. No freedom of thought, if by that phrase is meant the *right* of thinking *wrong*. No thinking *for ourselves*; but, ever thinking for the truth, whether old or new, whether coming from the inner light, or from

outward authority, or from both combined. The conclusive answer to such popular objections may be summed in two short propositions. Rational submission to true authority, in the start, is the best security for genuine mental independence in all after life. The only genuine *free* thinking is that which comes from *right* thinking, by whatever means this may be secured to us; whether from our own unaided study, or the guidance of older and better instructed minds. On both of these propositions we are willing to appeal to results, as manifested in the subjects of these two different modes of training.

Another application of our general principle would present the converse of the one on which we have just been dwelling. Right translation from Greek to English is the most ready and effectual mode of learning how to translate from English to Greek; that is, of writing Greek correctly. The idiomatic mode of rendering secures this at every step. The boy who has been accustomed, from his first lesson, to read Greek and Latin as he ought, will, from this very exercise, learn to write them *pari passu*. What has been already said is sufficient to set this in the clearest light. Greek and Latin are sometimes studied for years; there is acquired a tolerable facility of construing in the verbal method; but, when the pupil comes to write the language, if he has never practised it before, he finds, in his first effort, that he is as ignorant of its methods as he is of the Sanscrit or the Mohawk. The reason plainly is, that he has studied only words, or grammatical constructions, regarded alone in their Greek aspect. He has never read from idiom to idiom. Had he invariably done this, it would have been just as easy, and we may say just the same, to render the English idiom into the Greek as to render the Greek idiom into the English. One would habitually suggest the other, just as simply as single words suggest single words. The principle is so obvious, and the application so easy, that it is indeed a wonder that it should have been so much overlooked. It is simply inverting a process; a coming back by the same road on which we traveled to a certain place. In this way alone does the pupil learn to think in the language. Thought becomes the counterpart of thought, instead of word being merely the counterpart of word. In truth, as has been said before, but it will bear to be repeated, idioms, when well understood, and made the representatives of each other, have a stronger hold upon the memory than single words, and do more readily enter into our spontaneous thinking. Illustrations here would be simply inversions of those we have already employed. Take, however, another and a very familiar one. A boy has to translate into Greek the apparently very common and easy sentence, *they threw stones at the man*. He begins, ἔβαλον

τοῖς λίθοις, &c.; but, it strikes him, perhaps, that it does not sound quite Greek-like. There is no error in form or syntax, that he can detect. Still, it is not satisfactory; and yet, he knows no other way. Had he been carefully taught from the beginning, and made familiar with it by correct translation every time the case occurred, it would have become a part of his habitual thinking that the Greeks make the person, or thing thrown at, and not the thing thrown, the object of this verb; or, rather, had he always read the Greek sentence right, it would have come to his mind without an effort of thought at all. The one idiom would suggest the other, just as readily as the word λίθος suggests the word *stone*, or the word βάλλω the word *to throw*, and he would write at once as correctly as Xenophon has it,—οἱ δὲ αὐτὸν τοῖς λίθοις βάλλον, &c. These are very familiar examples, but they fully illustrate our position. Easy as they are, the pupil who has been wrongly taught is at a loss about them at every step. He follows on, word for word, after the English construction; he has, perhaps, the single words rightly selected; the forms seem correct; yet, still it looks strange. The Greeks do not talk in this way. Thus much the reading and observation of an intelligent boy may suggest to his mind. But, it is not enough to explain the puzzle. He does not know why it will not do, and all for the reason that this simple Greek idiom, and hundreds of other simple Greek idioms, have lain hid, for years it may be, under this bad mode of translation. He has passed right over them. He has never been accustomed to bring an idiom in one language, face to face with the corresponding idiom in another, and thus to make the one form of words the invariable suggestor of the other.

His mode of rendering has actually covered up the English idioms; or, rather, he has used no English idioms at all, only English words unnaturally forced into Greek forms of thought, thus losing the peculiarity, and, in this, the power of both languages. The right methods of turning English into Greek have been lying all along his path; but, utterly unnoticed, because there was nothing to bring them, and keep them, constantly before his mind. Hence, has he gone on for years without making substantial progress. He has not passed even the gate of the outer court; much less has he found access to that rich treasure of literature whose acquisition was the chief motive of his long and laborious study.

VII. DEBATING, A MEANS OF EDUCATIONAL DISCIPLINE.*

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"ARISTIPPUS," says an ancient writer, "being asked what boys ought to learn, said: '*What they will have occasion to use when they become men.*'"

If this famous answer of the old Greek, which by some is so liberally interpreted as to embrace almost every kind and degree of culture, by others so exceedingly limited in its application as to exclude whatever falls without the circle of the most vulgar utility, be founded in wisdom,—if, in other words, the education of youth should be at all governed by a reference to the wants of practical life in after years, there can be little doubt that debating, properly managed, might be among the most valuable of educational agencies. Hence what are called debating associations have, in our view, a peculiar interest. Capabilities they certainly have in the cause of education, which, though undeniably great and easy of development, are rarely realized, because rarely brought into full and efficient exercise.

This, at first, may seem an extravagant statement; for, after excepting every case that ought to be excepted, the history of societies established for this purpose presents, for the most part, little beyond a record of desultory doings, devoid of serious or elevated purpose, unsupported by proper preparation, without intelligent regard to parliamentary usage,—in short, without any aim, study, process, or result beyond the requirements of an ordinary pastime. With such associations, therefore, as a general thing, we connect the idea of amusement—often that of dissipation, rather than that of mental improvement. We are hardly able to conceive of them as regular, reliable means of intellectual discipline. Hence we find, or seem to find, for them no fixed position in our ordinary routine of

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scholastic training. They do, indeed, spring up spontaneously, as it were, and cling around our higher institutions of learning; but even there they exist as things incidental, forming no essential part of the main design;—encouraged, it may be, but not enjoined,—guarded, rather than governed, by those in authority.

In such connection, it is not at all surprising, that debating societies should become a source of solicitude,—often even a grievous annoyance to tutors, professors, and others responsible for the conduct of students. Just at the age when passion is in perilous conflict with principle; just in the circumstances, where opportunity readily seconds desire, is it wonderful that youths, forming independent organizations, owning no allegiance, as such, to the college or academy with which they happen to be connected, should sometimes be guilty of excesses which older, and what ought to be wiser heads, are daily practicing under the influence of even less temptation? These societies, it is alleged, furnish a plea for late hours. They divert students from their regular studies. They make young men captious, conceited, and opinionated. They often lead people into the habit of arguing against their own convictions; and, finally, if nothing worse, they do, at least, absorb, without furnishing any proper equivalent, a large amount of most valuable time.

The most obvious answer to these and all similar objections is that which ought to occur to every thinking mind, namely, that arguing against a thing from the mere abuse of it is not very satisfactory logic. Such argumentation, if allowed to have weight, would soon destroy our confidence in almost every thing. The exclusive study of mathematical science is said to generate a skeptical spirit. Shall we, therefore, banish mathematics from the college curriculum? Many pages in the works of the most celebrated writers of ancient Greece and Rome are polluted with thoughts and expressions which, though they give indication of the moral tastes and principles of the times, and, therefore, subserve important historical purposes, are, nevertheless, but too well calculated, in themselves, to exercise a demoralizing influence over the minds of youth. Shall we, therefore, handle none but *editiones expurgate*, or, more sweeping still, join in the clamor for the total expulsion of classical studies? Colleges necessarily withdraw from home, and, consequently, from all the saving influences of home, large numbers of young men who, being, in a measure, unavoidably left to themselves, are sometimes, in spite of the best regulations and the most watchful supervision, betrayed into practices sadly offensive to good taste, if not utterly destructive of good morals. Shall we, therefore, declaim against all collegiate establishments, and absurdly hope, by their

extinction, to extinguish evils that belong not exclusively to the condition of students in a college, but rather to the condition of humanity at large? Lawyers, from the very nature of their position, are under constant and almost irresistible temptation "to make the worse appear the better reason;" and often poor human nature, in the person of a lawyer, is found shamefully dealing in the arts of sophistry, and thereby disgracing one of the noblest of professions. Shall we, therefore, cry out against the study of law, and leave the advocacy of our legal rights to the tender mercies of chance?

The truth is that debating societies, or debating classes, composed of students belonging to a college, are, like many other good things, both in and out of college, very liable to abuse. But cutting off the abuses by crushing the societies, seems like curing diseases by killing the patients. It is not quite clear, moreover, that they could be crushed entirely, even though it were admitted that they ought to be. The demand for them seems to grow out of the very nature of our mental constitution. We all naturally love debate. Whether it be desire of truth, desire of victory, or mere love of contest,—whatever the motive, or combination of motives, under which we act, certain it is that we all eagerly engage, or readily give ear to others engaged, in controversial encounters.

Accordingly, almost every age and every country, blessed with any tincture of literary culture or philosophical spirit, has had its debating societies,—has had, we mean, its meetings or conferences, under some name or other, for the free and frequent discussion of topics of common interest. } Oral discussions were among the earliest and most effective means of eliciting truth and diffusing knowledge. } In all the schools of all the various philosophical sects of classical antiquity, open disputation was the favorite method of testing the soundness of theory, and of detecting and exposing the disguises of error. To what extent, and with what deplorable excesses, it became prevalent in later ages, in almost all parts of Europe, no reader, perhaps, requires to be informed. What multitudes of clubs, societies, and associations, under every possible appellation, have sprung into existence, in recent times, for the avowed purpose of general discussion, all the world knows; for all the world knows what mighty changes and commotions, social, civil, and religious, have grown out of those apparently transient conflicts of opinion, and what numbers of master spirits have thence derived the first real consciousness of their own strength,—the first effective impulse to extraordinary achievement.

It is no part of wisdom, therefore, in college authorities, to attempt the suppression of debating societies. It is no part of wisdom to
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look upon them with an eye of discouragement or disapprobation. They are capable of splendid service in the cause of education; and not only splendid, but peculiar; a service, in fact, for which it is impossible to find any sufficient substitute. Their appropriate sphere, moreover, seems to be in connection with collegiate institutions. There, at all events, we have a right to expect from them the best possible results; for there they may have the benefit of wise and constant supervision.

But the supervision to be useful, must be *authoritative*. It must guard against the introduction of abuse; but this it can not do efficiently, if its power is known to extend only to the general duty of watching and warning. If the theory be that debating societies, or debating classes (for here names are indifferent), are perfectly independent organizations,—that they may, at the pleasure of students, be multiplied indefinitely,—that, in them, or during their exercises, presidents and professors, tutors and students, are all on a level,—that what, during a recitation in the morning, would certainly incur censure or expulsion, would, during a debate in the evening, be quite out of the reach of official interference,—if, in fine, the debating societies are to be accounted, as it were, co-ordinate branches of the college, and subject to no checks or limitations not self-imposed, it would be little short of a miracle, if these organizations, instead of being always a means of discipline, should not often become a means of sad dissipation.

It is, however, no part of our present purpose or duty to undertake to settle the boundaries within which the liberties of debating societies, attached to colleges or other scholastic institutions, should be restrained. We claim no sufficiency for such a task. We volunteer nothing, in this way, beyond the opinion that they ought to be classed among the regular means of educational development, placed under the same systematic guidance, and made subject to the same salutary rules and regulations. Thus managed, beside the main results at which they aim, not the least of their valuable uses would be that of furnishing, from time to time, a tolerably fair index of mental growth and discipline.]

But the topic we are here discussing, namely, debating as a means of educational discipline, by no means confines us to such societies only as are found within the precincts of collegiate establishments. There are thousands of societies all over the country, far removed from any seat of learning, and owing their origin entirely to a laudable ambition on the part of those composing them to excel, or, at least, to acquire passable skill in public discussion. They operate as schools for mutual instruction, and, as such, may be

fairly counted among the educational forces of the country; as such, moreover, whether otherwise they fulfill our expectations, or not, they possess that indispensable requisite to all successful teaching, the power of awakening and sustaining attention!

Such associations, assuredly, should elicit our warmest sympathies. Consisting, for the most part, of young men who have either wanted or wasted opportunities of early and regular education, who, many of them at least, under the stimulus of noble aspirations, are longing to make the future atone for the past,—

— *fatis contraria fata rependens*,

who, in a word, are anxious to be something in the great family of mankind beyond mere “hewers of wood and drawers of water,” they deserve encouragement, because their impulse is worthy, and because out of such encouragement may come forth, in time, men fitted to adorn and to benefit the race.!

Many things, no doubt, are done and said in these societies which might better be left unsaid and undone; many manifestations of ignorance, frivolity, and conceit, are therein witnessed, which might well recall the pertinent prayer of Burns—

O wad some power the giftie gie us
To see oursel as ithers see us!
It wad frae monie a blunder free us,
An' foolish notion!

and yet, with all their faults and liabilities to fault, they offer such means and motives to intellectual development as can not fail, when fairly considered, to outweigh all objections that can be urged against them. This is our firm conviction. Nay, we take higher ground still: We think them not only liable to no insuperable objection, but even capable of a service, in the cause of education, scarcely attainable in any other way. Many considerations induce this belief; of which, however, these four are the most prominent:

First, because they are, when rightly managed, the best possible schools of logical disputation.

Secondly, because they furnish the best opportunities for the practice of deliberative oratory.

Thirdly, because they force us, as it were, into the acquisition of a great amount and variety of useful knowledge.

Fourthly, because they lead to a familiar acquaintance with the practice of parliamentary law.

1. The first of these several reasons, or considerations, is founded, of course, upon the assumption, that logical disputation is, or ought to be, ranked among the branches essential to a complete education: This may not be readily admitted, because it may be easily miscon-

ceived. It may by some, for instance, be thought that we are here favoring, if not openly advocating, that kind of disputation which begets a captious, rather than a critical spirit, and which ultimates always in producing ready wranglers, rather than ripe debaters. This is far enough from being our intention. The thing here intended is *logical* disputation; that is, disputation begun, continued, and ended in the spirit that befits the sober investigation of truth,—that sort of disputation which is the natural and necessary outworking of the soul in the earnest search after knowledge,—which courts the guidance of enlightened reason, ignores the dominion of pride, passion, and prejudice, diligently seeks the real which ever underlies and explains the merely phenomenal, and limits its efforts only by the discovery of fundamental principles, or by finding those barriers beyond which human intellect is forbidden to penetrate. This, and this only, we mean by logical disputation; not captious caviling, which is an abuse of reason; not idle logomachy, which is an abuse of words; not angry altercation, which is an abuse of feeling; but a free, fair, and vigorous exercise of those rational powers whereby we are set above the whole brute creation, and which, being capable of indefinite improvement, we are bound to cultivate to the utmost.

Thus understood, thus directed and applied, logical disputation becomes a noble art. It is the very touchstone of truth,—the safeguard of the mind. By it we are led to sift, to weigh, to compare, to analyze. By it we are taught to avoid partial views and hasty conclusions, to measure with others, and, under the force of active competition, our own strength, and so to find the level that forbids an overweening confidence. By it we are guarded equally against the snares of sophistry and the assaults of dogmatism. By it, in brief, we acquire the invaluable habit of “proving all things, and holding fast that which is good.”

But logical disputation, like every other art, derives its perfection from culture. It rests upon the basis of a science, which, however grossly abused in former times, however little appreciated in our own day, deals deeply with the fundamental laws of thought, and discloses the nature of that mental process according to which all reasoning appears to be conducted. Yet, happily, no one has need to despair of attaining skill in the art of logical disputation, merely because he is little versed in the abstrusities of logical science. Nothing is more common than proficiency in practice coupled with deficiency of theoretic knowledge. Men reasoned, and often reasoned well, long before the time of the illustrious Stagirite. Not the least, indeed, among the many, many proofs of beneficent design in the all-wise Maker of man, is the remarkable fact, that He has made su

periority in *art* possible even to those who have no claims whatever to profundity in *science*.

We shall be grievously misunderstood, however, in the drift of these observations, should they be taken by any one as an argument against the study of Logic, as a science. We are far from regarding that study as useless. Yet (to use the words of another) "to explain fully the utility of Logic is what can be done only in the course of an explanation of the system itself. If it were inquired what is to be regarded as the most appropriate occupation of MAN, as man, what would be the answer? The Statesman is engaged with political affairs; the Soldier, with military; the Mathematician, with the properties of numbers and magnitudes; the Merchant, with commercial concerns, etc.; but in what are *all* and each of these employed?—employed, I mean, as *men*; for there are many modes of exercise of the faculties, mental as well as bodily, which are in great measure common to us with the lower animals—evidently, in *Reasoning*. To understand, therefore, the *theory* of that which is the appropriate intellectual occupation of Man in general, and to learn to do that *well*, which every one will and *must* do, whether well or ill, may surely be considered as an essential part of a liberal education."^{*}

Fully concurring, as we do, in this view of the matter, our words of encouragement to those who, because they are wanting in theoretic, are ready at once to despair of all worthy success in practical Logic, can not well be misconceived. They are designed to favor neither ignorance nor presumption. He that aspires to the character of an accomplished disputant, if not utterly destitute of all natural qualifications, will not fail to perceive in systematic Logic many important uses. The same sagacity, under the light of modern progress, will save him from that unaccountable delusion which, mistaking the *means* for the *end*, and utterly perverting and misapplying the science, produced, in the middle ages, that mischievous race of philosophic triflers, whom history painfully portrays under the appellation of scholastics; men whose "Logic," says Enfield, "was rather the art of sophistry than that of reasoning; for it was applied to subjects which they did not understand, and employed upon principles which were not ascertained. Their whole business being disputation, they sought out such thorny questions as were likely to afford them sufficient exercise for their ingenuity. Their whole care was to conduct themselves, in the contest, by the rules of art, and their whole ambition to obtain the victory." Against such Logic as

* Whately.

this we have every thing to say; but where opportunity is afforded for the study of Logic, in the truest and best sense of the term, it is certainly great folly to let slip the chance of becoming acquainted with its peculiar resources; but greater folly still, where the opportunity happens to be denied, to sink down under the weight of that deficiency, and so relinquish all hope of useful or honorable attainment.

If, however, it be conceded that logical disputation is an art so important as justly to claim rank among the essentials of a finished education, it may still be inquired whether debating societies are likely to furnish the best possible facilities for cultivating it.

(Disputation, to be useful, must be orderly.) Where each disputant is at liberty to take his own course, subject, that is, to such restraints only as an ordinary sense of propriety may impose, extraordinary, indeed, must be the wisdom and moderation of that company, in which debate, if at all earnest, is not likely to become the source of strife rather than the channel of truth. For this reason we have less confidence than many in what is called the Socratic method of reasoning. That method which derives its name, as is well known, from the illustrious person who adopted it in his philosophical discussions, and which, for his purpose, was an admirable instrument of reason, consists in propounding a series of questions, the answers to which are made by the adroitness of the querist, to form a chain of concessions, whereby an opponent is bound fast to some unexpected and previously resisted conclusion.

It is sometimes claimed for this mode of discussion that it is superior to all others, because (among other things) it has all the ease and sprightliness of common conversation,—because it quickens attention, and keeps perpetually alive a certain necessary interest,—because it is free from the limitations and restrictions of formal debate,—last of all, and best of all, because it leads one into correct conclusions by merely indicating the right mode of exercising his own intellectual faculties. There is, doubtless, considerable force in these suggestions. Where, especially, you have a wily, wordy opponent to deal with,—one of those slippery spirits, to find whose real position is

“Like following life through creatures you dissect,
You lose it in the moment you detect,”—

this closely-cornering, closely-clinching process of question and answer is a most excellent contrivance.

But, after all, good as it is for particular purposes, pleasant as it seems, when regarded in the distance, this method appears to us not a little objectionable, as a means of discipline, and even as a means

of producing conviction. If you would convince the understanding, you must offer no violence to the feelings. But how could you more effectually do this than by surprising your opponent into the toils of a wily logic? In so doing, you do, indeed, gain a temporary triumph; you do, indeed, it may be, silence for a moment the tongue of sophistry or conceit. But you do more than that; you generate a brood of antipathies; you shut up the avenues of truth to the soul of your adversary, and make him (possibly many who sympathize with him) reject truth, because he rejects you as the medium of it.

Even in the most judicious hands, this method is liable to ultimate in dissension. The dispute between Socrates and Protagoras, recorded by Plato, is a case in point. Socrates, in the midst of a highly respectable company, was plying with singular felicity his famous process of interrogation. He had already gained admission after admission, till, at length, the subtle sophist was forced into a position diametrically opposite to that which he had occupied in the outset of the discussion.

Protagoras sought refuge in diffuseness. Socrates insisted upon brevity. The former became impatient of what he thought to be improper dictation; the latter, professing to be unable to follow long speeches, refused to proceed unless his demand should be complied with. Then, suiting the action to the word, Socrates rose abruptly to depart.

Hereupon the master of the mansion, a wealthy Athenian, who was deeply interested in the discussion, eagerly seizes him by the hand, and, finally, prevails upon him to remain. The altercation, however, proceeds. Several of the company undertake to mediate. One urges the distinguished disputants not to *quarrel*, but to *argue*. Another, who is called "Hippias, the Wise," after alluding to the disgrace that must certainly attach to an angry altercation between such persons, on such an occasion, and in such a place, offers a suggestion which, whether he was wise in other respects or not, indicates a fair appreciation of the difficulties of an unregulated debate. "Be persuaded," said he, "by me to choose a *moderator*, *president*, or *prytanis*, who will oblige you to keep within moderate bounds on either side."

It is substantially this advice which we are here laboring to impress. Not that we would disparage the Socratic method as such. That method, as before intimated, has its appropriate place and its appropriate uses. In those ancient philosophical conferences, for example, where one leading mind conducted, as it were, the reasonings of the rest, it had a certain fitness, a sort of class-room

brevity and directness, which belongs rather to schools under the authority of a master than to assemblies of equals engaged in public and formal discussion. It was good at Tusculum, but ill suited the Senate.

The opinion, therefore, entertained by some, that a far better exercise of the reasoning powers may be secured from conversational discussions, in which the method of Socrates is predominant, than from any disputing societies, however organized or managed, is one in which we find ourselves quite unable to concur. For such young men, generally, as most need and seek this kind of improvement, it would, we are assured, work unfortunately in many ways. It would, as we have already seen, even in the best hands, often be fatal to that freedom from angry excitement which is so essential to the right exercise of intellectual force. It would, in some, beget insuperable timidity and aversion, because of its operating like a trap to the understanding, and subjecting one to the mortifying necessity of convicting himself. In others, it would be apt to create the idle and pernicious habit of dealing (to use the language of Boyle) in "those dialectical subtleties which are wont much more to declare the wit of him that uses them, than to increase the knowledge or remove the doubts of sober lovers of truth." In others, again,—the lookers on—its effect would be not unfrequently to breed a love of the process, as a sort of literary sport: affording pleasure for the same reason, and of much the same nature, as that which gives zest to pugilistic encounters.

Very different, though not altogether free from abuse, as we know, is the practice of oral discussion under the forms and rules of an organized body, where each speaker has the right and the opportunity to present, explain, enforce, and defend his own views in his own way. Law is there, however, as well as liberty. In a well-ordered debating society, as in a well-ordered political community, the liberty of the whole is secured by the partial restraint of each individual. There error is, indeed, left perfectly free to choose her positions, and to employ her weapons, whatever they may be, unfettered by modes of warfare dictated by her antagonist; but there, too, truth is permitted to appear on the same equal terms, the only vantage-ground which she ever asks or needs.

This union of law and liberty, which can be rightly realized in such an organization only, is, moreover, highly conducive to habits of close and careful thinking—the indispensable element of all worthy attainment in the art of disputing. It presents an arena in which all may have practice with fair hope of success, but in which eminence is never gained but by severe intellectual exertion. One's

sense of responsibility is fully awakened for the character of the thoughts which he utters. If they be obscure, superficial, incoherent, or irrelevant; if they be clear, profound, consistent, or pertinent; if they be—aye, whatever they be, his intellectual standing is fixed in the minds of his auditors. Here is something to excite to generous ambition, and that ambition fails not to excite care, caution, and diligence. Here is a company of critics in critical conference. They come not to discuss the merits of parties without, but to canvass freely the claims of one another. Here is an intelligent, at least an inquisitive, public opinion to be met, and he is capable of no exalted station in the world of eloquence who is wholly insensible to its improving influence.

In circumstances like these, a young man of any promise soon comes to discern the value of profound and patient thought, close investigation, rigid analysis, and careful deduction. These come to be indissolubly connected with the idea of a good debater; while mere words, tones, gestures, however fluently uttered, however gracefully managed, fail utterly to secure solid and enduring reputation. If his aspirations be at all worthy, and his genius at all worthy of his aspirations, he will be driven irresistibly into the habit of disdaining the aids of sophistry, of idle rhetoric, and theatrical effect; and, relying upon the force of a manly logic, which is ever the chief source of a manly eloquence, he will be found, upon every occasion, acting out the spirit of that celebrated saying,—*Amicus Plato, amicus Socrates, magis tamen amica Veritas*.

2. Our second leading consideration in favor of debating societies, as disciplinary agents, is that they furnish the fittest opportunities for the practice of deliberative oratory. This might be inferred from the very nature of the case; for what is deliberative oratory but that which is employed in deliberative assemblies? and what is a debating association but a deliberative assembly, at least, in miniature? We take it for granted that no one questions the importance of seeking skill in this kind of oratory. It requires but a very slight survey of the various scenes and objects of its exercise to make this point abundantly clear. Its province is almost unlimited. In Congress, in the State Legislatures, in City Councils, in Town Meetings, in Conventions of the Church, in Synods, in Presbyteries, in organized bodies of every description, civil and religious, literary and scientific, commercial, mechanical, agricultural,—wherever, in a word, questions are to be discussed, and decided according to the will of a majority, there is the appropriate field for deliberative oratory.

How vast, then, how varied, how complicated the interests which

it involves, and sways, and determines! Alternately the medium of knowledge, the lever of reason, the magic wand of passion and persuasion, its power over a popular assembly is often past all description. Decrees and dogmas, affecting the interests, temporal and spiritual, of whole classes or communities,—war and peace, spreading gloom or gladness over populous nations,—authoritative decisions, reaching down to the very details of social and domestic life, are often suspended on the tongue of the deliberative orator.

Surely, then, debating societies, if they offer any peculiar facilities for the acquisition of skill in this potent art, are to be set down among the most useful of educational appliances. But are they able to do this? We have not a doubt of it. They do not, indeed, nor can they supply the lack of academical learning and training. They do not offer themselves as substitutes for study and observation. They promise no exemption from toil, no easy access to oratorical eminence. Nor, on the other hand, do they justify the conclusions of those who seem to think a knowledge of Grammar and Rhetoric, coupled with the customary routine of exercises in Composition and Elocution, quite sufficient to secure at once the highest attainable position in the world of oratory. They merely promise to each, according to his previous culture and mental habits, according to his previous character, in a word, a measure of skill derivable, perhaps, from no other kind of practice. They, therefore, by no means despise or disparage the advantages to be secured from books and schools, but verify the observation, often made, that oratory from books and schools exclusively is like many things else from books and schools exclusively; Medicine, for example. It is rather *experiment* than *experience*. Think of a man prescribing medicines which he knows only from description, for the cure of diseases which he knows only in the same way, and you have no bad illustration of the course of an unpracticed debater.

Debating societies are, indeed, to students of deliberative oratory what clinical lectures are to students of Medicine—the sources of actual experience. There is no question proper to be discussed in any deliberative body, whatever its object or its character, that may not, with equal propriety, be discussed, as an exercise, in such an association. There all the motives that commonly prevail in assemblies devoted to the transaction of the real business of life, can be brought to bear with equal effect. There every argument, every suggestion, every felicity of diction, every grace of action, every persuasive of every kind, can be as fully tested as if the society were the Senate of the whole country, or any other great and dignified assemblage. The scene is favorable, in the highest

degree, to the development of every order and every diversity of talent. Is logic your sole reliance? Then reason soundly; see that every link in the chain of your argument is strong and sure; for they are present who are eager to find the least flaw, because well they know that from the chain of logic, as from the chain of nature,

"whatever link you strike,
Tenth, or ten thousandth, breaks the chain alike."

Is your appeal to hidden motives discernible, as you think, in the character of your audience? See that it is such an appeal as does no dishonor to the speaker himself, nor condemns, by implication, those to whom it is directed; for he that ventures to employ unworthy means, however excellent the ends, is most likely to find, in a company of debaters, as everywhere else, if not more than anywhere else, that "honesty is the best policy." Do you put your trust in wit, and irony, and sarcasm? Be cautious in the use of these dangerous weapons: remembering that often, in such cases, the recoil is far more dreadful than the discharge. Are courtesy and forbearance the means most to your taste? Let them be the offspring of genuine kindness; for counterfeits in speech and manner, like all other counterfeits, are apt to be detected, and if so, bring irreparable defeat upon the counterfeiter. Are you tempted to trust entirely, or mainly, to the efficacy of graceful gestures, expressive tones, pointed emphasis, and other similar aids? Be sure that an orator without some strong foundation of sense and reason, like a Christian without some strong foundation of genuine charity, is ever "as sounding brass and a tinkling cymbal."

Another important advantage in the exercises of a society of this kind is, that there people soon find their proper level. Temerity takes lessons from caution, timidity learns self-reliance, presumption abates under the check of prudence, and many other features of character exercise a friendly formative influence one upon another. This wholesome discipline has often been acknowledged by men of the most illustrious rank. It is, especially, the experience, and, therefore, the testimony of those who, in early life, while yet

"Chill Penury repressed their noble rage,"

found, in these humble organizations, a fostering mother to that genius which, in after years, was able

"The applause of listening Senates to command."

It would be easy, therefore, to multiply testimonies on this point. Indeed, it would be hard to find a man who has ever achieved a reputation in the field of eloquence, who is not under obligation,

more or less heavy, to the exercises of some debating association. Nor has this obligation been confined to those only who have been denied the advantages of regular scholastic education. The most educated, and the least educated, each in appropriate measure, have experienced the benefit. We cite few instances, because few are really needed.

The celebrated Lord Mansfield, after a full course at Oxford, and even after his entrance upon legal studies, sought improvement in a debating club. Herein were discussed some profound legal questions, questions involving many intricate points of law. He entered into these discussions with all the earnestness of real life. He was careful, copious, and thorough every way, in his preparations; so much so, indeed, that they were found not only adequate to the wants of the occasion, but served, in a high degree, to render him ultimately one of the first jurists of the age.

Curran is another signal example. Every thing seemed to be against his cherished aspirations. Awkward and ungainly in gesture, hasty and inarticulate in utterance, with a voice naturally bad, he early provoked the name of "Stuttering Jack." Since the days of Demosthenes had no man apparently had such obstacles to contend with. After completing his college course, and, like Mansfield, entering upon Professional studies, he still persevered in the endeavor to overcome the difficulties lying in his way to success as a public speaker. He, too, sought aid in debating societies. He patiently withstood the ridicule awakened by his ludicrous, unprepossessing manners. He bore failure with fortitude. He turned all criticism to good account; and, at length, came to be one of the most effective orators of which any age or country can boast.

Fox, distinguished alike for the good and the bad that marked his strange career, gave a powerful, though unconscious, testimony to the value of debating associations, when he confessed, as he did, that he had acquired skill, as a debater, "at the expense of the House of Commons." He had made it a point, during a whole session, to speak on every question, important, or not, merely to improve himself in the art of debating; that is, he had deliberately turned the British House of Commons into a sort of debating society for his own personal convenience. What success he ultimately reached, as a deliberative orator, may be learned from a witness no less competent than the celebrated Edmund Burke, who declared that Fox came, "by slow degrees, to be the most brilliant and accomplished debater the world ever saw."

We take one example more, and that from our own country; not because we have not many to give, but because he is the type and

representative of them all. We refer to Henry Clay,—a name that awakens at once the thought of every thing that is fascinating and forceful in deliberative eloquence. Without wealth, without patronage, without academical discipline, without every thing, it would seem, essential to the formation of such a character, he rose, by dint of unyielding perseverance, to be among the princes of eloquence in a land abounding in the most gifted orators. Henry Clay owned frankly and always his obligations to the exercises of a debating society.

3. But our limits, in the present paper, admonish us to pass to the next general consideration which we have named, in favor of associations of this description; namely, the great amount and variety of knowledge which they induce young persons to be at the pains to acquire. Various are the motives engaged in the production of this result. Pride, vanity, envy, ambition, and many other feelings that usually figure most largely in the service of folly, are here sometimes strangely beguiled into the service of wisdom. Many a soul that never awoke under the discipline of school or college, has suddenly shown, under the spur of debate, signs indubitable of the most extraordinary mental capacity. Patrick Henry fomenting disputes among the customers that sometimes met in his store, and, amid these contests, watching with eager interest the play of the passions and the language of emotion, is no solitary example of a mind, naturally indolent, allured into keen and vigorous exercise by the strong stimulus of oral discussion. What matters it, that he had no other motive, or purpose, than the gratification of the passing hour? The effect of the exercise, far from being momentary, reached out into the future, and largely aided in giving him that wonderful command over a popular assembly, which few of all the great speakers, whether ancient or modern, have ever found it possible to acquire.

The knowledge thus gained by Patrick Henry was knowledge of human nature—knowledge of those secret springs of action, whereby the heart is most easily and profoundly moved, and the will most surely and permanently influenced. Others, under the same stimulus, are often urged to extraordinary intellectual exertion in other directions. How many, many hours of patient, persevering toil have been spent in the investigation of a single point in History, in Law, in Medicine, in Theology, in every department of human knowledge, by persons who, without the motives that ordinarily prevail in spirited contests of opinion, could never have been induced, for a moment scarcely, to sacrifice the ease of indolence to the advantages of learning.

But, not to dwell upon the acquisitions necessarily made in the

course of elaborate preparations for debate, nor upon the effect of disputation in eliciting latent intellectual power, we have only to consider the information that must be incidentally given and received, in the progress of a discussion, in order to be satisfied of the utility of these associations as the means of imparting knowledge. Even those debates which so frequently spring up respecting the Constitutions and By-Laws of such societies, though often deemed irksome and profitless, are not without a special advantage. Discussions of this kind serve to induce thought respecting the nature of those fundamental laws and powers in a community, under which and in conformity to which all other laws and powers whatever must be made and exercised. They serve, especially, to dispel that vagueness which, in so many minds, always attaches to the idea of a Constitution. They lead to a careful, often to a critical, consideration of those various distinctions and functions indicated, when we speak of constitutional, legislative, judicial, and executive powers. Many a man, profoundly versed in these things, has been able to trace the first step toward their acquisition to some casual controversy in a debating society.

Another sort of incidental information often imparted in the transactions of these societies, is that which grows out of the necessity, so frequently arising, of preparing, in written form, Resolutions, Reports, and other documents, which require ability, derivable only from practice, for their prompt and proper execution. It is a mortifying thing, when asked to reduce your Resolution to writing, or, as Chairman of a Committee, to bring in a written report, or, as Secretary of a meeting, to produce a record of its transactions, to be found tardy, awkward, blundering, or altogether inadequate to that service. To those, in particular, whose early education has been neglected, which is probably the case with the great majority of persons composing debating clubs, or literary societies, this highly practical feature of their character ought to be specially interesting. Not, as we have before said or intimated, that, in the transactions or exercises of these associations, there will be found a full and perfect substitute for academical training; but that, with or without that advantage, they offer such opportunities for the acquisition of skill, in this regard, as can not well be otherwise obtained. This kind of skill is sometimes invaluable. One can not help deploring the figure made in the old Continental Congress, at its first session, in 1774, even by such men as Richard Henry Lee and Patrick Henry, one of whom has been pronounced by high authority the Cicero, and the other the Demosthenes, of America. "On the floor of the house, and during the first days of the session, while general griev-

ances were the topic, they took the undisputed lead in the assembly, and were, confessedly, *primi inter pares*. But, when called down from the heights of declamation, to that severer test of intellectual excellence, *the details of business*, they found themselves in a body of cool-headed, reflecting, and most able men, by whom they were, in their turn, completely thrown into the shade."

✓ "A petition to the king, an address to the people of Great Britain, and a memorial to the people of British America, were agreed to be drawn. Mr. Lee, Mr. Henry, and others, were appointed for the first; Mr. Lee, Mr. Livingston, and Mr. Jay, for the two last. The splendor of their *debut* occasioned Mr. Henry to be designated by his committee to draw the petition to the king, with which they were charged; and Mr. Lee was charged with the address to the people of England. The last was first reported. On reading it, great disappointment was expressed in every countenance, and a dead silence ensued for some minutes. At length, it was laid on the table, for perusal and consideration; till the next day; when first one member and then another arose, and, paying some faint compliment to the composition, observed that there were still certain considerations not expressed, which should properly find a place in it. The address was, therefore, committed for amendment, and one prepared by Mr. Jay, and offered by Governor Livingston, was reported and adopted with scarcely an alteration. Mr. Henry's draft of a petition to the king was equally unsuccessful, and was re-committed for amendment. Mr. John Dickinson (the author of the *Farmers' Letters*) was added to the committee, and a new draft, prepared by him, was adopted."* Surely the failure of such men, under such circumstances, ought to be instructive. It ought to impress upon every young man that aims at eminence, however fair his talents as a speaker, the necessity of laying a foundation, deep and strong, in those qualifications which secured to Jay and to Dickinson a glory offered in vain to men who excelled them far in oratorical power.

4. Our fourth and last general consideration in favor of debating associations, as a means of educational discipline, is, that they lead to a familiar acquaintance with the practice of parliamentary law. This is a kind of education, so to speak, far more valuable than many would imagine. It fits one for usefulness, where, without such fitting, all other qualifications are often comparatively useless. It is a source of influence, where influence is every thing; a defense of the right, where often the right has no other defense. It is a

* Wirt's *Life of Patrick Henry*, sect. iv.

guarantee of order, of decency, of dispatch, of free speech, and of fair decisions.

The importance of this kind of knowledge will further appear, if we duly regard the scene of its exercise. There is not upon earth, perhaps, a more interesting spectacle than a dignified deliberative assembly. As Homer's gods never appear more majestic than

"When Jove convened the Senate of the skies,"

so men never seem in a sphere more elevated, than when assembled, under the call of duty, for grave and important consultation. They are then in the formal exercise of those high moral and intellectual functions which are the peculiar endowments of the race, and which form distinctly the lines of likeness between man and his Maker. Not, then, like the beasts of the field, are they following the mere instincts and appetites of physical nature; not then, regardless of man's responsibility for man, are they wholly absorbed in schemes of personal advantage; not then, a frantic mob, are they acting in concert only to appall the hearts of men with a sense of danger, but rather a "multitude of counselors, in which there is safety." Their proceedings, ever regarded with especial interest, because they are the representatives of others, acquire at times an overwhelming importance. If the subject before them be great, if the occasion be inspiring, if life, for example, if liberty, be suspended on the decision of the hour, if power, if peril, if clamor from without, combine to stifle the voice of truth and justice, if, in the face of all these, there appear a cool, unquailing spirit of right, a fearless, forceful assertion of principles, there arises at once a scene of moral sublimity, not only awakening elevated emotion, but nerving the arm for heroic achievement, and putting soul in sympathy with soul for every good and every great undertaking.

But to form a deliberative assembly, answering at all to the model here indicated, or to any model likely to find favor with wise and good men, the essential element is order. Law that guides the heavenly bodies in their courses,—law that shapes and directs the endless forms of being upon earth,—law that governs nations, and churches, and families,—law whose "seat is the bosom of God, her voice the harmony of the world," is here, as everywhere else, the indispensable condition of safety and success. Every member may be endowed with the finest talents, furnished with every force and every facility of logic, supplied with ample stores of general knowledge, skilled in all the graces of action and utterance, in short, the very *beau ideal* of the perfect orator, and yet, if the body itself be not under the guidance of some known and recognized rules of order, they are, after all, like a ship at sea without chart, compass, or rud-

der, a melancholy prey to the vicissitudes of chance. It is not sufficient merely to *have* rules. They must be known and observed; not by the few only, but by all. It will not do in a deliberative assembly, as in the community at large, to leave the knowledge and practice of the laws to a particular class of men only. Here, every man is, and must be, his own lawyer. The law with which he deals, like all other laws, has its advantages and its penalties; and, if he would secure the one, or avoid the other, he must be familiar with its operation. It is not enough to study the theory in Parliamentary Manuals, or to ponder precedents in particular cases. He must *work* himself into the practice. Then, when the exigency arises, he will know how to avail himself of rules and usages, and to parry the thrusts of quibbling opponents. Then, when his personal rights and privileges are invaded, when exposed to the assaults of indecorous opposition, when partiality, caprice, or assumption of power not granted, appears in the person of a presiding officer, when tyrannical majorities overleap the limits of right, when lawlessness, in any way whatever, dares to show itself, he has at command every protection that can be afforded by the laws and usages appropriate to the time, the place, and the circumstances. Who that has had experience in this direction, has not frequently felt the want of such knowledge? How often is the ablest logician, the most eloquent speaker, through ignorance of parliamentary tactics, quite thwarted and disconcerted by some wretched Thersites whose whole ambition is to find fault with his betters, or some scheming tactician whose highest hope is to escape defeat, or secure advantage through dexterous resort to rules and usages! How often have the most important interests, in legislative and other councils, been put in jeopardy, ruinously delayed, or altogether cut off by want of skill in parliamentary proceedings, where every member, perhaps, intended nothing beyond the most open, prompt, and honest performance of duty!

Every consideration, therefore, whether you regard the dignity of the entire assembly, the rights and privileges of individual members, or the vast variety and importance of the interests involved in their doings, points plainly to the utility of a practical acquaintance with those rules of order that commonly prevail in deliberative bodies. Nor is it less a matter of duty than a matter of utility. If this be so, if interest and duty really unite in urging it upon us, where shall we turn for practice in this important line of action, if not to some well-ordered debating association? In such a body may easily be learned, and many times repeated, almost every form of proceeding within the wide range of parliamentary usage. Here may be acquired, not only that general expertness in the application of known rules and customs, which is everywhere required for the easy, satis-

factory transaction of business, but even that tact and adroitness in the use of expedients which is the fruit of long and various experience. To secure this result, it is only necessary to adopt some recognized code of parliamentary law, to follow rigidly its various provisions, and give them the widest possible range of application. Time will do the rest.

Such, in general, are the advantages promised by well-conducted debating associations. One objection only can be urged against them—their liability to abuse. Against this, where they are purely voluntary, the surest guarantee must be found in the character of those composing them. If they meet as a company of carping, caviling critics, doubting and disputing, because they delight in doubting and disputing, and eager to enjoy the pleasures of conquest, whether truth or error prevail in the contest, the result will be answerable to the design. A spirit vain, conceited, skeptical, and full of sophistry, must be the consequence. If they meet with no higher purpose than that of beguiling a weary hour, or courting the pleasure of controversial excitement, the time, though it might be worse spent elsewhere, is still lost, and worse than lost; for it is occupied in forming pernicious mental habits.

But should a different spirit prevail, should they be so fortunate as to perceive the rare possible advantage of being thus associated, should they be so wise as to pursue that advantage with becoming diligence, how various, how valuable the rewards that must follow! What sharpening and strengthening of the mental powers, what facility in speaking, what various information, what improvement every way, may not reasonably be expected? If there be in them any thing worthy of the light, it must come forth under such inducements. If there be not, will it be no advantage to be made conscious, by contact with other minds, of one's own real position, seeing that so many and so mighty evils continually grow out of a lack of self-knowledge?

Surely such training needs no defense; requires no advocacy. In every situation it has its value. Life is a perpetual debate. Men may "beat their swords into plow-shares and their spears into pruning-hooks," "arms may yield to the gown of peace," yet the war of opinion is a war eternal. That struggle, always active and energetic, was never more fierce than at present. A thousand knotty questions divide and distract the public mind; a thousand dangerous theories delude the understandings of the people. These questions and theories agitate all our deliberative assemblies. They assume the aspect of truth and the armor of reason. They challenge discussion. They demand in those who undertake their investigation, the most able and accomplished debaters.

VIII. PHYSICAL SCIENCE ;

CONSIDERED IN CONNECTION WITH THE QUESTION "WHERE ARE WE TO LOOK FOR
THE SUPPORT OF ITS HIGHER SCHOOLS ?"*

BY PROF. HENRY J. ANDERSON, OF NEW YORK.

In the treatment of the subject before me, I have the choice of considering how Physical Science may be furthered irrespectively of contemporary institutions, or of looking at its place and special prospects in our own present age and community. I have thought that the more practical treatment of this topic would best discharge the task which I have assumed, and I purposely refrain from the more tempting, but less profitable, option of a rambling discourse on the best way of teaching what perhaps might never get a chance of being taught. It is doubtless true that Science, to be properly imparted, should be imparted in reference to ulterior and imperishable interests. But, for this very reason, its administration must take notice of existing facts. It must consult the convictions of the teacher. It must consult still more closely the convictions of the learner. It must act (I add this because so often forgotten) in due subordination to the organic institutions of the land; and, were it only for the sake of something infinitely better, it must accept, to a certain extent, the settled disposition of the people, and the prevailing spirit of the age.

An ambitious philosophy might propose to itself the discovery of some method of disseminating knowledge, unobservant of circumstances and of times; where the teacher goes forth as the conqueror, subduing all capacities and creeds to the submissive reception of the truth, and propagating Nature's Evangel as Mahomet spread his: by the holy vigor of the word and the sword. I am sure I shall be excused from the labor of attempting to find out a way of doing what I cannot believe can be done. Instead, then, of considering impracticable methods of teaching the laws of unanimated nature good for all times and all tempers, I propose to discuss briefly such methods as are conscious of our country's ways, and adapted to our country's wants.

* Read before the American Association for the Advancement of Education, Thursday, August 30th, 1853.

The leading characteristic of the American mind, the mark at once of our progress, and the monitory signal of many a danger to come, is a love of the largest liberty consistent with the safety of the social life, and a reverence for the firmest authority compatible with the rights of the individual will. I do not stop, now, to praise or blame, nor to inquire whether we have allowed ourselves more or less latitude of self-responsibility than is virtuous or wise. Much may be said, and much that is generous and true, both for and against the free use of democratic power. And I will not denounce, on the one side, a possible tendency to that impatience of restraint from which the world, I believe, was never well free, nor, on the other, an equally possible disposition to prefer, in the interests of peace, the austere order of arbitrary rule. It is enough to feel that God has given us more freedom, perhaps, than he has ever vouchsafed to grant to a community before, and I leave it to you, my friends, to decide whether we do wrong to fear that it is almost more than we are worthy to enjoy.

And yet, be our party-beliefs what they may, no academical establishments inconsistent with our permanent political organizations can last long enough to procure, for uncongenial schemes, a satisfactory investigation. Taking our view, therefore, from the point of American convictions, let us see what ways are left open to us of augmenting the numbers of those who are willing to devote themselves specially to the study of the laws of physical facts. The mere pleasure of knowing, the mere pleasure of *believing* that we know, is attraction enough to prevent these numbers falling off; and, though we do well to enforce this advantage by every legitimate incentive, it would be treason to science to deny the sufficiency of her own unaided charms. These puzzling elements of the beautiful world without us; these undeniable, incomprehensible, mysterious monads; these inevitable atoms, with their inevitable contradictions; this matter-dust, at once impossible and indispensable; these seeds of things, perpetual miracles, massless and formless germs of mass and form, which neither suffer nor rejoice, which hope not, neither do they fear, which have neither consciousness, nor love, nor self-reproach, and yet minister to all the appetites and passions and emotions of the never-dying soul: these things, so hard to understand, that their existence may be questioned without paradox or scandal, have yet relations profoundly interesting, some so simple and transparent, that the infant school finds the child in their possession, and others so superbly involved, that they challenge for ever the long musings and unceasing admiration of the sage.

Can we believe that these relations were left learnable, yet not to

be learned? And, if learned, on what conditions, and to what extent? May or may not, a study so self-remunerating, maintain itself without entreaty or compulsion? May or may not, a knowledge so productive, be safely left to the stimulus of a natural demand? Shall governments abstain from what is so often a pernicious intermeddling? And shall the inferior legislatures of the land, the town-council and the family head, disburden their wits and consciences of the whole matter, by turning it over to the parties concerned, letting learning and teaching beneficially alone, until learners and teachers have found each other out? Free trade in letters before the mystery of spelling is achieved, or in science before the boy has been forcibly familiarized with ratios and roots, would not, perhaps, accomplish all the results we desire. But is there not good ground for contending that once beyond the rudiments, all importunate directions are hurtful interferences with the sacred prerogatives of taste? Admitting all the difficulties of this inquiry, it will do no harm, at all events, to ascertain what might be done, when, all our social influences being left to do their work, the study of science is kept free from organized incentives and restraints. And this, we certainly can do without prejudice to the right to go as far as we think proper in seconding the effect of superadded motives, whether religious, political or domestic.

I am thus led to consider what weight or credit is to be given to each of the moral forces which urge the car of science on its upward way. And, in doing this, I must say something of the working of the voluntary principle in facilitating or retarding the successful study of the laws of the material creation. To do this as I ought to do it, I ask, first, to be indulged in an emphatic repetition of an old preliminary truth, manifest when fairly faced, but so easily forgotten that I hardly dare hope that I shall keep it before me, as is my bounden duty, in every line that my pen shall trace this day.

Of itself, and for itself, science is vanity, it is nothing. Good only as a means of doing good, evil only as a means of doing evil, like health, or wealth, or wit, or beauty, or truth, or life, or reputation. It is sometimes said that a cultivated intellect is cheaply purchased at the body's cost. This may or may not be. What, if in this way we dismiss the better servant for the worse? Reason is not the soul's highest faculty, that she can say, unchallenged, to the sense, "Submit, for I am worthier than thou." There is in man that knows, and that in him that does, blind instrumentality and conscious duty, the understanding and the will, the meritless marshaller of meritless means and the indefectible exactor of the righteous end. The knowledge of the things that perish is itself a perishable thing, and that teaching may be the greatest of evils, that but teaches how good may be done.

There is nothing that man can know, or believe, of which it may not be rightfully asked what security does it give us of its profitable use. All human cognitions are open to this criticism, and subject to this accountability. The science of the beautiful and deformed, the philosophy of innocence and guilt, aesthetics, ethics, nay, theology itself, considered but as masses of things to be learned or to be taught, are no more to be trusted in the dark than geology, or embryology, or the chemistry of killing drinks and drugs, or political economy, or, to come at once to the worst, the black art, *Magnum Opus*, itself. Physical science is answerable, most undoubtedly, for all the mischief she may do, but no more than any other science, and not to any other science, perhaps, as fretful and as fallible as herself. Answerable, most assuredly she is; but to a Court of higher jurisdiction than any sister power, to a Court where the understanding, elsewhere so arrogant and so aggressive, stands modestly aside, abashed and mute in reverential awe.

What I shall venture, then, to say to you, my friends, shall be said in full view of this stern accountability, and if I do not seem formally to recognize this truth at every turn, it is because I feel assured of your candor and your kindness, and believe that you will even think the better of the speaker for having taken it for granted that, in this respect especially, you will do him far truer justice than he can do himself.

Subject, therefore, to this supremacy, science may do one of two things: it may work without soliciting assistance, or it may look for support to the Church, to the State, to the School, to the Workshop, to the Press, to the Family, and to the Individual man, considered as unassociated and at large. Leaving for the present the theory of self-support, let us see what each of these protectors is disposed to do for her in a country like our own.

And first the Church, meaning by this term the aggregate of the legally subsisting associations of the land, without reference to the merits of their conflicting claims to the exclusive guardianship and sense of Holy Writ.

Do the religious organizations of the United States feel it a duty to encourage the study of physical science to the extent to which it would be carried by the general desire? I do not ask if it be their duty, I do not even ask if they ought to feel it as a duty: I simply ask what may be called the condition of the fact. And, if no such conviction is entertained, has science any right to ask support from organizations founded for the furtherance of interests which they believe, and do well to believe, are of an order far above the possession of all the mysteries of the visible creation? Has the

Church, or any part of it, ever pledged itself to such a task? There is a difficulty, here, I am aware, hard to overcome. One of the great characteristics which make us what we are, is the absence of any generally accepted voice, speaking authoritatively for the Church; in the absence, it may be said, of the Church itself, in any commanding and controlling visibility. If we cannot agree whether there be a Church, or, if there is, where she is, how can we learn the mind of this somewhere existing mother, whom we are unable unitedly to recognize. If we seek to avoid this difficulty by applying for separate information to any of the leading associations which present credentials of authority, we are met by uncertain and contradictory replies. As a general result, it may be said that our religious confraternities, while they look with favorable eyes upon the progress of such sciences as are taught in true subordination to their end, regard their growth and their dissemination, however free they may be from the taint of a false ambition, as productive only of a secondary good. Nor has science a right to complain of this. Nothing would be more unjust than to attempt to force an order professedly religious, down from the height of her convictions to the lower level of a work not hers, while she feels neither a call for such a work, nor even a call to pray for such a call. Nevertheless, it must be admitted, to the honor of the religious bodies which the great principle of impartial toleration has made visible in our midst, that methodized elementary scientific education is mainly attainable, even now, through the medium of colleges more or less directed towards spiritual aims, and designed for spiritual ends. In this respect, as ever, Christianity, whether banded as a universal brotherhood, or acting in independent energies for a great common cause, has shown herself the true friend of science, in laying the only safe foundation for her house, in blessing it in the building and guarding it when built, in infusing into her votaries a spirit of moderation and good-will, and in dissuading them, when made heady by the fervor of invention, from the excesses of a misdirected and destructive zeal.

While this is true on the one side, it is not too much to say, on the other, that while our Church Academies have done much, they have left that undone which they were not, perhaps, to do themselves. They have not made provision, nor have engaged to make provision for the gratification of *all* intellectual appetites and wants, however innocent and commendable in themselves. To ask this surplus at their hands, would be to ask, *debitum de non debente*, an assistance which ought to be refused. Let us turn, then, for a moment, to the State. Let us interrogate her interest in science, and her duty to make that interest good.

With us, the State as teacher, is but the scholar's choice. Her wisdom, in that capacity, will never exceed the average wisdom of her sons, except so far as this, that if votes must settle what ought to be taught, the collective judgment is as safe, at least, as any private voice, and whether it is or not, it is the safest we can now procure, not only in the sense of being pronounced the safest by popular decree, but in a sense more absolute than that, as long as authority more competent to judge remains incompetent to win the general assent.

But is it true that it is the business of *votes* to tell Americans what to learn, and to teach Americans what to teach? In elementary education, this principle of elective statutory will has vitality and force, and, therefore, though certainly not exempt from the sacred right of contestation, is deserving not only of all honor and respect, but of the most loyal treatment in its present process of experiment. To the good working of our institutions, a knowledge of their springs and balances is an indispensable condition; and education, aiming at this end, and carried to this end, may certainly be included in the list of legislative obligations. Yet, there are honest risks which this honest duty necessarily presupposes and involves. There is the hazard of a political establishment fraught, in evil times, with all the dangers of united Church and State. There is a mischievous addition to the patronage of party, if ever party should feel bound to do with the school what it has done with every thing else, put the right men in the right places, with a religious belief that its own men are the right men, and all other men the wrong.

Yet, after all, there is nothing more in this than we encounter and survive in every branch of our elective public service; and, confined religiously to uncontroverted subjects, elementary education may go on, whichever party claims the temporalities as its due. But what shall we say of looking mainly to the ballot box for our supply of astronomers, chemists, or engineers? A guarded system of double elections would rather mask than mitigate the evil. The danger of party proscription and corruption is greatly increased, when abuses are concealed by a complicated process of appointment, or by the mystery of high qualifications. And, then, the interest of the State in science is so subtle, so debateable a thing! And mother State has already so much to do, so many and so constantly increasing cares! She has to secure each man's honest own, from each man's very honest belief that he has not all his own. She has to protect her touchy children from mutual innocent misunderstandings about the things that are, things that nobody sees exactly *as they are*, and which nobody believes but that he does. She has to run after Private Judgment in his frolicksome excursions, and when she catches him

out of bounds, to restore him sane and sober to the circle of his friends. She has to cool the ardor of independent individuals somewhat excited by the idea that they are senate, court and army all in one. She has to shut up for safe-keeping heretical philosophers, whose odd creeds have pushed them into acts which make it painfully necessary that they should not go at large. She has to see that the lifetaker's misapplied convictions are justly retorted upon himself. She has to replace, with more than Russian perseverance, breastworks that have been levelled by the undermine of stratagem, or the battery of force. She has, in these latter days, new and superogatory cares; not yet, it is true, to tell us what to worship or believe, but what is right to buy and sell, and what is not; what is safe for self-ruling freeman to pass from hand to hand, and what property has so mischievous an existence that it must be wrested from the owner, though charters perish in the strife. All these, within the limits of the constitution's prior law, are the State's legitimate concerns. Shall we add to them the care of our brains beyond the rudiments which are enough for the legislator's wants. Science is proverbially jealous and proud. Pity it is, she is; but so she is, and so she ever will be. The State cannot take her by the hand so condescendingly, but she will be tempted to return a scornful glance. If the State protect her, it must not be in Mahometan seclusion; for she has her own wild notions of fidelity, and will never promise an allegiance which neither wealth nor power is entitled to exact. Not that it need be doubted that, in her way, she will render most worthy service to the State, but better far as a voluntary benefactor than as a pensioned functionary, or a salaried dependent.

If science undertakes to do without Church or State, what interest has the School, (and by that I mean unestablished academies, founded solely as natural supplies for natural demands,) what interest has the School, in this sense, to grow in the direction of physical instruction. Left to themselves, and truly freed from all corrupt connection with the State, the interests of the schools will, sooner or later, be represented by the interests of the community at large. If the people are already trained to a consciousness of their interest in science, if, in other words, they know enough to take knowledge at its worth, if they neither slight it as a pedantic inutility, nor superstitiously overrate it, as if it were a talisman fit to cure the consequence and to bar the very birth of crime, then we should have, at least, no more learning than we needed and no less. Are we so far forward, dearest friends? Who of us can answer? No man knows where he is himself in the order of capacity. What nation, then, can say, without vanity: "Behold me, owing nothing to heaven or to earth; poised on my centre, I

can balance and govern myself?" Avoiding this dangerous self-praise, perhaps we may say, in a sense that is not meant as severe, that we are as able to abide by the voluntary principle in the matter of intellectual supplies, as we are in the selection of platforms, or creeds, or costumes, or trades, or even as we are in those tenderer relations, where the State will one day try and help us, if we let her, in the choice: I mean of the spiritual or the conjugal depositories of our cares. In all these interdealings, we find no durable demand left long unrepresented by an adequate supply. If every Pro and every Anti, polemic or political, is sure to find its temple or its den; if every whim of habiliment or food is fairly pampered by providers and purveyors without a help or a hint from senate or house; if every myth that can craze a dozen converts, finds an organ disdainful of State-printing and all ablaze in the interests of souls; if, without tax or bounty, the most tyrannical of house-lords finds, at last, a loyal subject only too happy to respond to his decrees; if the hatefulest of services, fairly sought and fairly paid for, is sure to be cheerfully performed, how can we doubt that where the love of being taught is a vigorous reality attested by something more than a vague cry for gratuitous nutrition, the teacher (and I mean not an eye-laborer, who thinks only of his pay, but the sympathizing guide who feels more than remunerated by his pupil's success) will be at hand to administer with devotion and delight, to a passion which, more than any other, it is an honor and a happiness to feed.

The liberty of teaching is, or ought to be, essentially an American idea. It may be that in the providence of God, self-governments are left to man, as ever-reviving but ephemeral experiments, not to be repented of, not to be abandoned, yet not to be mistaken for the permanent condition of the race. If, however, self-government is right, then is the freedom of the mind and the furniture of knowledge best secured by a *minimum* of intermeddling from ballot-box authority, in matters of instruction as in matters of belief. In other times, and even now, in other places, governments exist which are not as we should wish them for ourselves, but there they are or were, for unguessed reasons, which may be good though we know them not, and, therefore, most deserving of our reverent respect. Under a monarch, or a patriarch, the education of the *people* could no more be left to the *people*, than the duties of a nursery could be entrusted to its little inmates, or the conduct of a hospital be delegated to the sick. High over all the realms of this earth sits an Infinite Royalty enthroned, and the self-ruling nation is most emphatically subject to His will. If He has committed us to the hazards of self-direction, He has bound us by the same great charter to the risks of discussion untrammelled by

the State. What seems truth may be, sometimes, (who can deny it?) but unconscious error in disguise; sometimes even, (who would believe it?) stark folly and delusion. But still let her be subject, in her lamentable wanderings as in her wonted ways serene, to no such harsh dominion as is found in an unsympathizing legislative rule, to no such commissionless director as may be lurking in the dim spiritualities around us, faithful as these are in the main to the cause of their glorious chief. If ever her future mistress is to come, let us wait till she has added to the titles of her call the note which subdues without compulsion, and persuades without a bribe, till time, and a genial and a general acclaim shall have pronounced who it is who can win our understandings through our wills, who it is who can subjugate our heads through our hearts, and bind us, with our consent a reunited people, by that mystic triple cord, triple and yet one, one faith, one hope, one love.

The Workshop has a special interest in science, and, by this interest, has already achieved results which ought, at times, to put the pride of the academy to the blush. Perhaps I may be pardoned if I say that it is here that science herself is apt to be unjust. No one who has not sat, with the right faith and knowledge, by the side of the patient artisan; who has not watched the progress of his thought from the moment of its birth in the narrow cell of its necessity, through all its struggles and rebukes, its hopes and its defeats, its strange diseases and its sudden cures, its disappearance and oblivion for a time, and its unexpected re-emergence preparatory to a triumph long deferred,—can ever know how much science is indebted to the most unsightly and least assuming of her sons. I know it has been said that the artisan has had little reason to complain; that he is querulous and scornful; and that he rejects, when most he needs it, the proffered clue which would lead him into light. But even if this were sometimes so, which of the two is bound, in this unfortunate mischance, to be generous and forbearing to the other? Is it he who is but the holder of the facts already classed, or he who gratuitously adds to the number on the list?

The assorter of old inventions may, no doubt, himself invent; but, by doing so, he is raised to his humble brother who has done the same, and with less. It is not a condescension as he might be tempted to believe. What the Workshop is for science, and what science is for the Workshop may be seen by studying labor in her loftier pretensions. The astronomer's observatory, the laboratory of the chemist, the geologist's cabinet in doors, or his largest studio without, are workshops all in the true sense of the word, and they are not doing half their duty if they aim at nothing more than the registration of

admitted facts, nothing more than their verification or re-emission, though these are not to go undone.

The laboratory, using now the term at large, is or ought to be the inventing student's veritable home. I mean where the deliberate quest of knowledge is a vocation as well as an allowable pursuit. Nature is never communicative to those who seek her secrets at second hand. She must be wooed in every person, wooed with humility, with patience, with assiduity, with love.

How far the laboratory may be made the place for best learning the higher laws of physical dependence, is a question which may be variously answered. Inquirers may differ very much in the comparative importance they attach to the two great divisions of scientific labor: the task of learning what is now known to the learned, and the work of learning what is not yet known at all; or they may differ upon the extent to which the scheme of education is meant to be pushed.

We are to learn the unknown through the known, but not through all the known, or science would now be at its limit. How much of admitted and authenticated truth is indispensable to a successful foray into the regions of ignorance and doubt, has been a master question ever since the first schoolmaster went abroad. This ratio varies with the time, and still more with the capacity. As facts accumulate the portion necessary for getting more must increase in absolute amount, but its ratio to the whole must constantly diminish, until that term is reached in which the proofs of originality are threatened with a loss in the very labor of comparing the so called new with the interminable old. And still greater is the uncertainty of this proportion when we compare, not time with time, but intellect with intellect. Genius is a power as undeniably real as memory or taste. It needs not much of the capital of the old discovered, nor even the schedule of that capital; for it flows into the ocean of congenial truth, not laboriously as of an effort, but unconsciously and gladly as rivers seek the sea.

These uncertainties may embarrass us, but they are not without their use. If they did nothing else than teach us the vanity of devising utopian combinations warranted good for all climates, and magnificently irrespective of age, person or condition, they would have amply justified their own existence. But they do not long perplex us, for common sense, that trenchant ruler of divided wits, will force us, in every field of duty, to the adoption of the best machinery at hand, without waiting for that absolutely best one, which always figures finely in the future, but stops unfortunately when fairly overhauled.

That the laboratory has not been duly annexed in organized completeness to our teaching institutions, is a fact admitting of no

doubt, but that it can be made subservient to very juvenile ambitions is more than it would be wise to assert. Of some divisions of natural science, it may be even said that studied from books alone, or even from merely gazed-at phenomena, brilliant though they be, nothing is acquired, but a most distressing and disedifying sciolism, which cannot possibly be taught its own mistakes, and which may do more harm in an instant than the wisest mender can repair in a year.

The two highest stimulants to learned toil are faith in the humanity of labor, and relish in its sweetness: the belief that the work will bring good to man and glory to his master, and both the belief and the sense of a recompense, divine in the very ardor of the act. Souls, impelled by these emotions, will work onward against poverty and neglect, against scorn and persecution. If they fail, as it is styled, their failure is but cause to an effect which ever proves, in the end, of more value than the selfish man's most dazzling success. If they win, the field of an honorable and eternal propagand is open to them and their supporters, and we have, in every such success, the centre of a school sustained by motives far more ennobling and enduring than the coffers of the State.

They only who have witnessed the restless activity of pupils well officered by men equal to the task of exploring the new prospects of science, and extending the real area of truth, can form an adequate conception of the difference between merely adhering to the old and gloriously conquering the new, between the spirit of revision and rehearsal, and the spirit of inquiry and research. It may seem like ingratitude to well meant legislation, to assert that her bounty may have prevented the full exercise of investigating skill, by making practically mere competence to reteach what has been taught, the main requirement for her chairs. Not that genius has not here, as everywhere else, found the means of going beyond the intended line, and brave new truths there are, and bright ones that have been hatched in state-built nests. But legislation is not directed to these ends, and I am far from saying that it should be. What I mean is simply this, that if science had been left fearlessly and frankly to herself, unincumbered by the sacrifices she has made to gain the favor of the State, and untrammelled by the pledges she has voluntarily given, and from which, therefore, she must not ask to be released, she would have had, by this time, a fresher and a freer organization, equipped with prophets and with priests not deriving their commission from the accidental preponderance of a mass of ballots cast for very different ends, but holding by the higher patents which genius and devotion have never failed to bestow upon their sons.

Science and the Press! Has this relation been studied as it merits?

Can matter's multitudinous laws be taught best now, as they were best taught five centuries ago, when universities were nations of young emigrants, clustering round great centres of spiritual life, because it was cheaper to live years away from home than to pay a heavier tax in the purchase of such luxuries as books were then. The effect of the modern press is to make scholastic learning and elementary science easily accessible at home, or, at all events, to substitute, for a few grand academies, containing numbers now incredible to the unreflecting, an equally incredible number of little schools, each good for its little neighborhood, but powerless to attract pupils from abroad. The lovers of high figures and impossible concentrations must lament, in this respect, the influence of cheap printing; but, on the whole, things are well as they are, and, in this as in everything else, one might suggest, for the comfort of the desponding, many consoling and substantial compensations.

In one respect, certainly, that very modern feature of the Press, the daily news-sheet, with its wonderful circulation, has an influence eminently favorable to scientific pursuits. The worthiest incentives to the close study of nature are more or less connected with publicity. The love of the very thought of human happiness, the natural, but sometimes overfond desire of social amelioration and reform, the attainment of honorable distinction as a discoverer of the useful or the true, are all motives greatly fostered by the instinctive promptness of the news-press, and its laudable ambition to compete for the prize of fresh and accurate intelligence. When we reflect that science enjoys now an advantage in this respect, which was denied to her in the ages we call dark, we feel that we may expect of her to dispense with that protection, without which, we must not forget, she won her best spurs in the days so despised of monks and manuscripts, serfs and saddlebag mails.

Science would not perish, though neither Church, nor State, nor School, nor Shop, nor Press looked after her. The *family* has an interest in her existence, an interest in her freedom, an interest in her growth. The father may be safely consulted in the choice of his children's helps. He himself has, perhaps, felt, in the pinch of many a reminder, that he has not been, at least, over taught; and he will not be neglectful in seeing that his little ones shall come, in due time, to the knowledge of all necessary truth. Left to this support, science will not, it is true, get access to all minds that she stands ready to instruct. There are the poor, who would know, but cannot pay; there are the overtasked, who would listen, but, alas, they cannot keep awake; there are the strange-tongued, who are yet to learn,

with years of toil, the very language through which it is well that the future citizen's information should be gained.

But society, even when viewed as a loose aggregate of families, before she is knit into a state, would not leave her children to perish for want of food whether of the body or the mind. The other interests would be produced by family's proximity to family, and man's eternal interest in man. And so, last of all, we shall be taught that the solitary unassociated individual has an interest in science to which she may appeal if all the others had failed to hold her up. Yes, if to-morrow these results of an advanced civilization were to withdraw their presence and their aid, the next day's sun would not go down without proofs the most cheering that, even in savage man, mind kindles mind, and heart responds to heart. The desire to know is an inextinguishable passion. Unregulated, as dangerous as the very worst; subject to control, it is the very nerve of modern life. The desire to teach, though less obtrusive is just as craving as the other. Most imperious, perhaps, where least expected. Mighty parent of a mingled brood! For of her are born patient persuasion and fiery zeal, gentle entreaty and excommunicating hate, all the sweetness of the sainted martyr, all the savage vehemence of fanatical despatch. We praise our brother when he has embraced our thought, we blame him when he differs or demurs. What is this but the pleased vanity of the successful teacher, or the mortified self-love of the repulsed. We do not teach until another learns. His accord is our acquittal and our crown, his dissent our condemnation and our cross.

As long as human nature is so susceptible of sympathy and so thirsty of harmonious response, so weak or so officious, if these are proper words, or so compassionate, so convincing, so soul-saving, if you will; so long we need not fear that science will tire of her mission or despair of her generous design. She will ally herself with every power that is willing to put her to good use, and does not tremble for the consequences of her somewhat blind devotion to what she holds to be the truth. With the Church, should that mighty mother ever be objectively revealed, she will walk in happy concord and reciprocated love; under the State she will take her honored place in loyal subordination to the powers that be; in the school, she will defer to the just claims of the sister sciences which deal in human affections and the code of conscious and answerable life; to the workshop she will stand in the relation of a counsellor and friend, not as giving without receiving, but as grateful for the contributions of the craftsman, conscious of his honorable toil, and a thankful heritor of his untutored intuitions. With the press she will maintain

as she has ever done, a cordial communion, a co-operation without hypocrisy or disguise, a friendship full of sympathy and mutual respect, lengthening her coadjutor's still extending arm, quickening his ear, purging his eye, and if necessary, as it may be here and there, praying jointly with her brother that a grace may be given that will always maintain them continent in temper and orthodox in taste.

With the family an attachment without form, and a cheerful unburthensome acquaintance, not intruding, not yet unwilling to come in, serving meekly by the day, as it were, not reluctant to assist, nor yet cast down by a permission to withdraw. With the individual a truly catholic affection ministering to his harmless little vanities and his crying wants, irrespective of his creed, his birthplace, or his blood, not happy in a discovery that but benefits a point and stops at a line, but rejoicing in every advance that fits man to serve humanity and its Master.

Science properly so called is in harmony with all existing institutions. And so she lives majestic and august, not seeking with ignorant cunning and self-complacent zeal to break down the immemorial and the stern, but looking cheerfully at their inevitable change, moving with all things as they move, looking for the immutable not in the pliant attitudes of things of place, and time, but in the eternal laws of their divine creation, fit emblems of their Maker's own adorable perfections. So shall science at last survey her own domain nor seek to criticise what lies beyond in the empyrean of faith. Wise in the vast sphere of the knowable and the known, she will bow to a believable and a believed, nor look with envious or scornful eyes if ever she should find that there are souls that may be fired without a touch from her torch, and may trace their brightness and their blessedness to inspirations unfathomable by her own.

The foregoing considerations, it must be confessed, do not directly solve the question;—how are the sciences best taught to American youth? But they pave the way to a solution. The very fact that they prove that there exists with us no power or authority so specifically interested in the matter as to justify the surrender of high physical instructions to its peculiar care, leads at once to two practical conclusions. *First*, that the complaints so frequently heard that this or that society or community, this or that incorporation or individual has failed to produce results which in Europe are the consequence of causes not existing here, are only to be justified on the ground that they emanate from subjective premises, logically warranting the conclusion, but void themselves of a logical support. *Secondly*, that for the present, and for as long as the American principle of a *minimum of legislation, and that minimum directly from the people* finds favor

in the land, so long science like other interests of greater or less value, must look mainly for its support to the *social* influences arrayed in its behalf. This conclusion is adverse to any immediate prospect of realizing grand political centralizations, and therefore discouraging to the culture of such minds as only thrive when fed by such excipients. But this loss, if it be called one, is more than counterbalanced by the advantages of liberty of education, earnestness of competition, and the rescue of literature and learning from the contaminating touch of party corruption and intrigue. The time may come, no doubt, when the friends of letters and science shall do more than what is now advisable, when instead of simply spurring to quicker action existing organizations, a ground more special and independent may successfully be sought. We may place both the things to be imparted and the methods of imparting them, nakedly and frankly on their merits before a people prepared to do them justice, and therefore, willing and able to sustain what they approve. And this may be done without resorting to the un-American process of legislating to those who prefer it an expensive education, and to those who do not their full proportion of its cost.

It is in this connection that the question best comes up, what ought to be, with us, the limits of the liberty of scientific teaching and research. If America has adopted for her maxim the largest liberty in all things, subject strictly to the order which is its price, and the happiness which is its end or its aim, we have yet to ask who have we now in our community admittedly authorized to tell us when the tenure of freedom is violated and when it is faithfully fulfilled. Even if we agreed in the reply the very principle itself from which we start, makes the agreement only good for the joint good pleasure of the bound, unless indeed what can hardly be expected, the duration of such an authority should be fixed for a definite time by a constitutional provision susceptible only of a constitutional repeal. It follows then that any truly representative and legislative action that should dictate to science the subjects it should handle or the methods it should use, would be in open derogation of the safest portion of its creed, and any other legislation would find itself unequal to the task of subduing the irritation which so dangerous an intermeddling would undoubtedly create. So far, accordingly, our State has with very great forbearance strictly enjoined upon the schools of her own creation, that they abstain as far as possible from teaching anything whatever about which opinions are decidedly divided. But these axiomatic truths are neither very many nor very difficult to get, and hardly justify an expense which before another lustre will be a matter worthy of attention. Granting, however, which I do,

that a budget, large enough some may say for the aggregate expenses of a well governed state, must be annually voted to teach the names of the implements of knowledge, and the necessary facts undeniable which the youth of the public should possess, what are we hereafter to do when debatable opinions shall be voted to be equally essential to the welfare of the state? Is it possible, as American convictions now stand, to invest the temporary holders of legislative power with a prerogative so vast as the control of education in matters where there exists, and in God's holy providence ought to exist, a wide diversity of honest belief? Is it possible to devolve this most delicate and difficult of all social tasks upon a permanent irresponsible organization? And if so, suppose some pleasant day, a pliant senate were goodhumoredly to agree to try what could be done, where is the body bold enough now to assume so responsible a charge. The time may come when for evil or for good, such an authority may exist and may exercise its powers with a hearty popular assent, but to-day we are very far from such an order of things, and *to-day, to-day* we are to act. In the meantime convictions and contradictions have their consecrated rights. There is no ism in physics, politics, ethics, or polemics that does not insist upon the freedom of its school. The more powerful organizations will protect the more weak on easy conditions of conformity, and these natural affiliations are not to be condemned. The religious orders of our land, without the wish of an exception, have a life and a legal existence due to wants which merit our profoundest respect. It is our proudest profession that we tolerate all, and as none shall be legislated dead or even legislated down, so none shall be prevented from expiring, as soon as it is conscious of a call to disappear. The religious orders have an interest in science, a subordinate interest it is true, but real as far as it goes, for they never would consent for mere show to make it a part of their work. To complain that they teach it at all, or that they do not teach it more, is merely to complain that they exercise the right which every teacher in our midst, body sole or body corporate, has long held by the law of the land.

A word or two may be said of the few schools of practical science among us, whose success is due either to the high reputation of their heads or to means of support derived from large private benefaction. A school truly self-supporting is a thing to be proud of when it comes, but not always to be aimed at when it does not. It is certainly a great thing to say that nothing has been taught that has not been thankfully paid for—for this reflects equal credit upon cathedra and bench. But the things most needful to the learner and the methods best adapted to his wants, are often not the things

nor the methods of his choice, nor even of those who hold the strings of the family purse. Here endowments are required, for there are parents, nor do I blame them, that appreciate the merits of a study when their neighbors, nor always the richest, pay three-fourths of the expense, but they cannot be convinced with the ware at full price. Among those may be many who have not the means, and the same principle which justifies the more poor in accepting the bounty of the less in matters which relate to the essentials of a right governed life, will apply with almost as much force to provisions for the satisfaction of the less imperative desires.

Yet the rule holds good in the main, that halls of education intended not for the elements of science, but either for the culture of the powers of invention or for the exercise of handiwork soon needed in the forge, the factory, or the field, the self-supported school will have proved itself the best in the end. Every such enterprise, living openly and well without the aid of the compassionate, has the notes of a legitimate success. And every other however laudable in its aims, however noble in its struggles and its sacrifices, only lives to cause the wise to regret that so much wisdom should be wasted in vain. Not that all is quite lost even then. For every good aspiration an ultimate reward is reserved, and even in this foggy world we are often enabled to see what a wonderful hit can be made by a generous miss.

To resume and conclude. As science has no right to complain that institutions not owing her allegiance, should lay her vast treasures under thankless contribution, and even send her adrift with a petulant reproach, so these institutions may afford in their turn to be forgiving, if young knowledge in his innocent peerings into nature, should run out in his delight and proclaim, like a terrible child, some unseasonable truth which his wiser elder sister would have prudently reserved. Or if he must suffer for this, at least let his innocence atone for his rashness when under the same eager desire to do good, he announces now and then to the world some beautiful fact which turns out, alas, to be no fact at all. Subjective science is convinced by its very nature of a false infallibility without being conscious of its falseness, and is thus exposed to unfortunate mistakes. But science truly and objectively herself, is not to be discredited for that which herself does not commit, or for that which even in her counterfeit resemblance is often nothing more than an inevitable error of the understanding or a curable delusion of the will. To condemn the first as presuming or immoral, is simply absurd; to treat the other as we sometimes hear it treated as a deliberate attack upon the very citadel of faith is a procedure neither Christian nor wise, and betrays the very fault

which it imputes. The devotees of science absorbed in their pursuits, are often very innocently unsuspecting of the slightest tendency in themselves to an irreligious turn of mind, and may be made by the mischievous or the stern to pay a very heavy penalty for their childlike unacquaintedness with what was never taught them in their youth. For I verily believe that there are many of them who live lives of singular simplicity, and know so little of the mystery of sin that they have never so much as thought of the mystery of its forgiveness. Such ingenuous enthusiasts as these are painfully unprepared for the awful brand of heresy, for unless braced for the encounter by that faith which nullifies the charge, the sudden thunder of a little rural Vatican is often quite enough for their nerves. I am sure if our lay defenders of the faith, always amiable-minded as they are, but not always authorized to excommunicate, were to know the nameless agonies which the thoughtless young inquirer undergoes when he finds himself fairly on their forks, they would be easier with the juvenile offenders, and keep the faggot and the fire for the stubborn and the stiff. On the other hand, it is but fair to ask whether science does not sometimes go as far as is wise when she ventures to expound without a license, the mystery of a Book and the sense of a Tradition intended not for the display of her explanatory skill, not as themes for her to teach from, nor as words for her to reconcile, but as vehicles of lessons for her to learn and graces for her to pray for, with that humility which unfortunately the unhumiliated understanding never misses in itself, which most abounds where least it finds itself, which best adorns the brightest intellects, and which quite unconscious of its own existence, wins from the jealous heavens her chiefest blessings and her choicest gifts.

XIV. SUBJECTS AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION IN MATHEMATICS;

AS PRESCRIBED FOR ADMISSION TO THE POLYTECHNIC SCHOOL OF PARIS.

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"L'ÉCOLE POLYTECHNIQUE" is too well known, by name at least, to need eulogy in this journal. Its course of instruction has long been famed for its completeness, precision, and adaptation to its intended objects. But this course had gradually lost somewhat of its symmetrical proportions by the introduction of some new subjects and the excessive development of others. The same defects had crept into the programme of the subjects of examination for admission to the school. Influenced by these considerations, the Legislative Assembly of France, by the law of June 5th, 1850, appointed a "*Commission*" to revise the programmes of admission and of internal instruction. The President of the Commission was THENARD, its "*Reporter*" was LE VERRIER, and the other nine members were worthy to be their colleagues. They were charged to avoid the error of giving to young students, subjects and methods of instruction "too elevated, too abstract, and above their comprehension;" to see that the course prescribed should be "adapted, not merely to a few select spirits, but to average intelligences;" and to correct "the excessive development of the preparatory studies, which had gone far beyond the end desired."

The Commission, by M. Le Verrier, prepared an elaborate report of 440 quarto pages, only two hundred copies of which were printed, and these merely for the use of the authorities. A copy belonging to a deceased member of the Commission (the lamented Professor *Theodore Olivier*), having come into the hands of the present writer, he has thought that some valuable hints for our use in this country might be drawn from it, presenting as it does a precise and thorough course of mathematical instruction, adapted to any latitude, and arranged in the most perfect order by such competent authorities. He has accordingly here presented, in a condensed form, the opinions of the Commission on the proper subjects for examination in mathematics, preparatory to admission to the Polytechnic School, and the best methods of teaching them.

The subjects which will be discussed are ARITHMETIC; GEOMETRY; ALGEBRA; TRIGONOMETRY; ANALYTICAL GEOMETRY; DESCRIPTIVE GEOMETRY.

I. ARITHMETIC.

A knowledge of Arithmetic is indispensable to every one. The merchant, the workman, the engineer, all need to know how to calculate with rapidity and precision. The useful character of arithmetic indicates that its methods should admit of great simplicity, and that its teaching should be most carefully freed from all needless complication. When we enter into the spirit of the methods of arithmetic, we perceive that they all flow clearly and simply from the very principles of numeration, from some precise definitions, and from certain ideas of relations between numbers, which all minds easily perceive, and which they even possessed in advance, before their teacher made them recognize them and taught them to class them in a methodical and fruitful order. We therefore believe that there is no one who is not capable of receiving, of understanding, and of enjoying well-arranged and well-digested arithmetical instruction.

But the great majority of those who have received a liberal education do not possess this useful knowledge. Their minds, they say, are not suited to the study of mathematics. They have found it impossible to bend themselves to the study of those abstract sciences whose barrenness and dryness form so striking a contrast to the attractions of history, and the beauties of style and of thought in the great poets; and so on.

Now, without admitting entirely the justice of this language, we do not hesitate to acknowledge, that the teaching of elementary mathematics has lost its former simplicity, and assumed a complicated and pretentious form, which possesses no advantages and is full of inconveniences. The reproach which is cast upon the sciences in themselves, we out-and-out repulse, and apply it only to the vicious manner in which they are now taught.

Arithmetic especially is only an instrument, a tool, the theory of which we certainly ought to know, but the practice of which it is above all important most thoroughly to possess. The methods of analysis and of mechanics, invariably lead to solutions whose applications require reduction into numbers by arithmetical calculations. We may add that the numerical determination of the final result is almost always indispensable to the clear and complete comprehension of a method ever so little complicated. Such an application, either by the more complete condensation of the ideas which it requires, or by its fixing the mind on the subject more precisely and clearly, develops a crowd of remarks which otherwise would not have been made, and it thus contributes to facilitate the comprehension of theories in such an efficacious manner

that the time given to the numerical work is more than regained by its being no longer necessary to return incessantly to new explanations of the same method.

The teaching of arithmetic will therefore have for its essential object, to make the pupils acquire the habit of calculation, so that they may be able to make an easy and continual use of it in the course of their studies. The theory of the operations must be given to them with clearness and precision; not only that they may understand the mechanism of those operations, but because, in almost all questions, the application of the methods calls for great attention and continual discussion, if we would arrive at a result in which we can confide. But at the same time every useless theory must be carefully removed, so as not to distract the attention of the pupil, but to devote it entirely to the essential objects of this instruction.

It may be objected that these theories are excellent exercises to form the mind of the pupils. We answer that such an opinion may be doubted for more than one reason, and that, in any case, exercises on useful subjects not being wanting in the immense field embraced by mathematics, it is quite superfluous to create, for the mere pleasure of it, difficulties which will never have any useful application.

Another remark we think important. It is of no use to arrive at a numerical result, if we cannot answer for its correctness. The teaching of calculation should include, as an essential condition, that the pupils should be shown how every result, deduced from a series of arithmetical operations, may always be controlled in such a way that we may have all desirable certainty of its correctness; so that, though a pupil may and must often make mistakes, he may be able to discover them himself, to correct them himself, and never to present, at last, any other than an exact result.

The *Programme* given below is made very minute to avoid the evils which resulted from the brevity of the old one. In it, the limits of the matter required not being clearly defined, each teacher preferred to extend them excessively, rather than to expose his pupils to the risk of being unable to answer certain questions. The examiners were then naturally led to put the questions thus offered to them, so to say; and thus the preparatory studies grew into excessive and extravagant development. These abuses could be remedied only by the publication of programmes so detailed, that the limits within which the branches required for admission must be restricted should be so apparent to the eyes of all, as to render it impossible for the examiners to go out of them, and thus to permit teachers to confine their instruction within them.

The new programme for arithmetic commences with the words Decimal numeration. This is to indicate that the Duodecimal numeration will not be required.

The only practical verification of Addition and Multiplication, is to recommence these operations in a different order.

The Division of whole numbers is the first question considered at all difficult. This difficulty arises from the complication of the methods by which division is taught. In some books its explanation contains twice as many reasons as is necessary. The mind becomes confused by such instruction, and no longer understands what is a demonstration, when it sees it continued at the moment when it appeared to be finished. In most cases the demonstration is excessively complicated and does not follow the same order as the practical rule, to which it is then necessary to return. There lies the evil, and it is real and profound.

The phrase of the programme, Division of whole numbers, intends that the pupil shall be required to explain the practical rule, and be able to use it in a familiar and rapid manner. We do not present any particular mode of demonstration, but, to explain our views, we will indicate how we would treat the subject if we were making the detailed programme of a *course* of arithmetic, and not merely that of an *examination*. It would be somewhat thus:

"The quotient may be found by addition, subtraction, multiplication;

"Division of a number by a number of one figure, when the quotient is less than 10;

"Division of any number by a number less than 10;

"Division of any two numbers when the quotient has only one figure;

"Division in the most general case.

"*Note.*—The practical rule may be entirely explained by this consideration, that by multiplying the divisor by different numbers, we see if the quotient is greater or less than the multiplier."

The properties of the Divisors of numbers, and the decomposition of a number into prime factors should be known by the student. But here also we recommend simplicity. The theory of the greatest common divisor, for example, has no need to be given with all the details with which it is usually surrounded, for it is of no use in practice.

The calculation of Decimal numbers is especially that in which it is indispensable to exercise students. Such are the numbers on which they will generally have to operate. It is rare that the data of a question are whole numbers; usually they are decimal numbers which are not even known with rigor, but only with a given decimal approximation; and the result which is sought is to deduce from these, other decimal numbers, themselves exact to a certain degree of approximation,

fixed by the conditions of the problem. It is thus that this subject should be taught. The pupil should not merely learn how, in one or two cases, he can obtain a result to within $\frac{1}{n}$, n being any number, but how to arrive by a practicable route to results which are exact to within a required decimal, and on the correctness of which they can depend.

Let us take decimal multiplication for an example. Generally the pupils do not know any other rule than "to multiply one factor by the other, without noticing the decimal point, except to cut off on the right of the product as many decimal figures as there are in the two factors." The rule thus enunciated is methodical, simple, and apparently easy. But, in reality, it is practically of a repulsive length, and is most generally inapplicable.

Let us suppose that we have to multiply together two numbers having each six decimals, and that we wish to know the product also to the sixth decimal. The above rule will give twelve decimals, the last six of which, being useless, will have caused by their calculation the loss of precious time. Still farther; when a factor of a product is given with six decimals, it is because we have stopped in its determination at that degree of approximation, neglecting the following decimals; whence it results that several of the decimals situated on the right of the calculated product are not those which would belong to the rigorous product. What then is the use of taking the trouble of determining them?

We will remark lastly that if the factors of the product are incommensurable, and if it is necessary to convert them into decimals before effecting the multiplication, we should not know how far we should carry the approximation of the factors before applying the above rule. It will therefore be necessary to teach the pupils the abridged methods by which we succeed, at the same time, in using fewer figures and in knowing the real approximation of the result at which we arrive.

Periodical decimal fractions are of no use. The two elementary questions of the programme are all that need be known about them.

The Extraction of the square root must be given very carefully, especially that of decimal numbers. It is quite impossible here to observe the rule of having in the square twice as many decimals as are required in the root. That rule is in fact impracticable when a series of operations is to be effected. "When a number N increases by a comparatively small quantity d , the square of that number increases very nearly as $2Nd$." It is thus that we determine the approximation with which a number must be calculated so that its square root may afterwards be obtained with the necessary exactitude. This supposes that before determining the square with all necessary precision, we have a

suitable lower limit of the value of the root, which can always be done without difficulty.

The Cube root is included in the programme. The pupils should know this; but while it will be necessary to exercise them on the extraction of the square root by numerous examples, we should be very sparing of this in the cube root, and not go far beyond the mere theory. The calculations become too complicated and waste too much time. Logarithms are useful even for the square root; and quite indispensable for the cube root, and still more so for higher roots.

When a question contains only quantities which vary in the same ratio, or in an inverse ratio, it is immediately resolved by a very simple method, known under the name of *reduction to unity*. The result once obtained, it is indispensable to make the pupils remark that it is composed of the quantity which, among the data, is of the nature of that which is sought, multiplied successively by a series of abstract ratios between other quantities which also, taken two and two, are of the same nature. Hence flows the rule for writing directly the required result, without being obliged to take up again for each question the series of reasonings. This has the advantage, not only of saving time, but of better showing the spirit of the method, of making clearer the meaning of the solution, and of preparing for the subsequent use of formulas. The consideration of "homogeneity" conduces to these results.

We recommend teachers to abandon as much as possible the use of examples in abstract numbers, and of insignificant problems, in which the data, taken at random, have no connection with reality. Let the examples and the exercises presented to students always relate to objects which are found in the arts, in industry, in nature, in physics, in the system of the world. This will have many advantages. The precise meaning of the solutions will be better grasped. The pupils will thus acquire, without any trouble, a stock of precise and precious knowledge of the world which surrounds them. They will also more willingly engage in numerical calculations, when their attention is thus incessantly aroused and sustained, and when the result, instead of being merely a dry number, embodies information which is real, useful, and interesting.

The former arithmetical programme included the theory of *progressions* and *logarithms*; the latter being deduced from the former. But the theory of logarithms is again deduced in algebra from exponents, much the best method. This constitutes an objectionable "*double emploi*." There is finally no good reason for retaining these theories in arithmetic.

The programme retains the questions which can be solved by making two arbitrary and successive hypotheses on the desired result. It is true

that these questions can be directly resolved by means of a simple equation of the first degree; but we have considered that, since the resolution of problems by means of hypotheses, constitutes the most fruitful method really used in practice, it is well to accustom students to it the soonest possible. This is the more necessary, because teachers have generally pursued the opposite course, aiming especially to give their pupils direct solutions, without reflecting that the theory of these is usually much more complicated, and that the mind of the learner thus receives a direction exactly contrary to that which it will have to take in the end.

"Proportions" remain to be noticed.

In most arithmetical problems are resolved first by the method of "reduction to unity," and then by the theory of proportions. But beside the objection of the "*double emploi*," it is very certain that the method of reduction to unity presents, in their true light and in a complete and simple manner, all the questions of ratio which are the bases of arithmetical solutions; so that the subsequent introduction of proportions teaches nothing new to the pupils, and only presents the same thing in a more complicated manner. We therefore exclude from our programme of examination the solution of questions of arithmetic, presented under the special form which constitutes the theory of proportions.

This special form we would be very careful not to invent, if it had not already been employed. Why not say simply "The ratio of M to N is equal to that of P to Q," instead of hunting for this other form of enunciating the same idea, "M is to N as P is to Q"? It is in vain to allege the necessities of geometry; if we consider all the questions in which proportions are used, we shall see that the simple consideration of the equality of ratios is equally well adapted to the simplicity of the enunciation and the clearness of the demonstrations. However, since all the old books of geometry make use of proportions, we retain the properties of proportions at the end of our programme; but with this express reserve, that the examiners shall limit themselves to the simple properties which we indicate, and that they shall not demand any application of proportions to the solution of arithmetical problems.

PROGRAMME OF ARITHMETIC.

Decimal numeration.

Addition and subtraction of whole numbers.

Multiplication of whole numbers.—Table of Pythagoras.—The product of several whole numbers does not change its value, in whatever order the multiplications are effected.—To multiply a number by the product of several factors, it is sufficient to multiply successively by the factors of the product.

Division of whole numbers.—To divide a number by the product of several factors, it is sufficient to divide successively by the factors of the product.

Remainders from dividing a whole number by 2, 3, 5, 9, and 11.—Applications to the characters of divisibility by one of those numbers; to the verification of the product of several factors; and to the verification of the quotient of two numbers.

Prime numbers. Numbers prime to one another.

To find the greatest common divisor of two numbers.—If a number divides a product of two factors, and if it is prime to one of the factors, it divides the other.—To decompose a number into its prime factors.—To determine the smallest number divisible by given numbers.

Vulgar fractions.

A fraction does not alter in value when its two terms are multiplied or divided by the same number. Reduction of a fraction to its simplest expression. Reduction of several fractions to the same denominator. Reduction to the smallest common denominator.—To compare the relative values of several fractions.

Addition and subtraction of fractions.—Multiplication. Fractions of fractions.—Division.

Calculation of numbers composed of an entire part and a fraction.

Decimal numbers.

Addition and subtraction.

Multiplication and division.—How to obtain the product of the quotient to within a unit of any given decimal order.

To reduce a vulgar fraction to a decimal fraction.—When the denominator of an irreducible fraction contains other factors than 2 and 5, the fraction cannot be exactly reduced to decimals; and the quotient, which continues indefinitely, is periodical.

To find the vulgar fraction which generates a periodical decimal fraction: 1° when the decimal fraction is simply periodical; 2° when it contains a part not periodical.

System of the new measures.

Linear Measures.—Measures of surface.—Measures of volume and capacity.—Measures of weight.—Moneys.—Ratios of the principal foreign measures (England, Germany, United States of America) to the measures of France.

Of ratios. Resolution of problems.

General notions on quantities which vary in the same ratio or in an inverse ratio.—Solution, by the method called *Reduction to unity*, of the simplest questions in which such quantities are considered.—To show the homogeneity of the results which are arrived at; thence to deduce the general rule for writing directly the expression of the required solution.

Simple interest.—General formula, the consideration of which furnishes the solution of questions relating to simple interest.—Of discount, as practised in commerce.

To divide a sum into parts proportional to given numbers.

Of questions which can be solved by two arbitrary and successive hypotheses made on the desired result.

Of the square and of the square root. Of the cube and of the cube root.

Formation of the square and the cube of the sum of two numbers.—Rules for extracting the square root and the cube root of a whole number.—If this root is not entire, it cannot be exactly expressed by any number, and is called incommensurable.

Square and cube of a fraction.—Extraction of the square root and cube root of vulgar fractions.

Any number being given, either directly, or by a series of operations which permit only an approximation to its value by means of decimals, how to extract the square root or cube root of that number, to within any decimal unit.

Of the proportions called geometrical.

In every proportion the product of the extremes is equal to the product of the means.—Reciprocal proportion.—Knowing three terms of a proportion to find the fourth.—Geometrical mean of two numbers.—How the order of the terms of a proportion can be inverted without disturbing the proportion.

When two proportions have a common ratio, the two other ratios form a proportion.

In any proportion, each antecedent may be increased or diminished by its consequent without destroying the proportion.

When the corresponding terms of several proportions are multiplied together, the four products form a new proportion.—The same powers or the same roots of four numbers in proportion form a new proportion.

In a series of equal ratios, the sum of any number of antecedents and the sum of their consequents are still in the same ratio.

II. GEOMETRY

Some knowledge of Geometry is, next to arithmetic, most indispensable to every one, and yet very few possess even its first principles. This is the fault of the common system of instruction. We do not pay sufficient regard to the natural notions about straight lines, angles, parallels, circles, etc., which the young have acquired by looking around them, and which their minds have unconsciously considered before making them a regular study. We thus waste time in giving a dogmatic form to truths which the mind seizes directly.

The illustrious *Clairaut* complains of this, and of the instruction commencing always with a great number of definitions, postulates, axioms, and preliminary principles, dry and repulsive, and followed by propositions equally uninteresting. He also condemns the profusion of self-evident propositions, saying, "It is not surprising that Euclid should give himself the trouble to demonstrate that two circles which intersect have not the same centre; that a triangle situated within another has the sum of its sides smaller than that of the sides of the triangle which contains it; and so on. That geometer had to convince obstinate sophists, who gloried in denying the most evident truths. It was therefore necessary that geometry, like logic, should then have the aid of formal reasonings, to close the mouths of cavillers; but in our day things have changed face; all reasoning about what mere good sense decides in advance is now a pure waste of time, and is fitted only to obscure the truth and to disgust the reader."

Bezout also condemns the multiplication of the number of theorems, propositions, and corollaries; an array which makes the student dizzy, and amid which he is lost. All that follows from a principle should be given in natural language as far as possible, avoiding the dogmatic form. It is true that some consider the works of *Bezout* deficient in rigor, but he knew better than any one what really was a demonstration. Nor do we find in the works of the great old masters less generality of views, less precision, less clearness of conception than in modern treatises. Quite the contrary indeed.

We see this in *Bezout's* definition of a right line—that it tends continually towards one and the same point; and in that of a curved line—that it is the trace of a moving point, which turns aside infinitely little at each step of its progress; definitions most fruitful in consequences. When we define a right line as the shortest path from one point to another, we enunciate a property of that line which is of no use for demonstrations. When we define a curved line as one which is neither straight

nor composed of straight lines, we enunciate two negations which can lead to no result, and which have no connection with the peculiar nature of the curved line. Bezout's definition, on the contrary, enters into the nature of the object to be defined, seizes its mode of being, its character, and puts the reader immediately in possession of the general idea from which are afterwards deduced the properties of curved lines and the construction of their tangents.

So too when Bezout says that, in order to form an exact idea of an angle, it is necessary to consider the movement of a line turning around one of its points, he gives an idea at once more just and more fruitful in consequences, both mathematical and mechanical, than that which is limited to saying, that the indefinite space comprised between two straight lines which meet in a point, and which may be regarded as prolonged indefinitely, is called an *angle*; a definition not very easily comprehended and absolutely useless for ulterior explanations, while that of Bezout is of continual service.

We therefore urge teachers to return, in their demonstrations, to the simplest ideas, which are also the most general; to consider a demonstration as finished and complete when it has evidently caused the truth to enter into the mind of the pupil, and to add nothing merely for the sake of silencing sophists.

Referring to our Programme of Geometry, given below, our first comments relate to the "Theory of parallels." This is a subject on which all students fear to be examined; and this being a general feeling, it is plain that it is not their fault, but that of the manner in which this subject is taught. The omission of the natural idea of the constant direction of the right line (as defined by Bezout) causes the complication of the first elements; makes it necessary for Legendre to demonstrate that all right angles are equal (a proposition whose meaning is rarely understood); and is the real source of all the pretended difficulties of the theory of parallels. These difficulties are now usually avoided by the admission of a *postulate*, after the example of Euclid, and to regulate the practice in that matter, we have thought proper to prescribe that this proposition—*Through a given point only a single parallel to a right line can be drawn*—should be admitted purely and simply, without demonstration, and as a direct consequence of our idea of the nature of the right line.

We should remark that the order of ideas in our programme supposes the properties of lines established without any use of the properties of surfaces. We think that, in this respect, it is better to follow Lacroix than Legendre.

When we prove thus that three parallels always divide two right lines into proportional parts, this proposition can be extended to the case in which the ratio of the parts is incommensurable, either by the method called *Reductio ad absurdum*, or by the method of *Limits*. We especially recommend the use of the latter method. The former has in fact nothing which satisfies the mind, and we should never have recourse to it, for it is always possible to do without it. When we have proved to the pupil that a desired quantity, X , cannot be either larger or smaller than A , the pupil is indeed forced to admit that X and A are equal; but that does not make him understand or feel why that equality exists. Now those demonstrations which are of such a nature that, once given, they disappear, as it were, so as to leave to the proposition demonstrated the character of a truth evident *à priori*, are those which should be carefully sought for, not only because they make that truth better felt, but because they better prepare the mind for conceptions of a more elevated order. The method of limits, is, for a certain number of questions, the only one which possesses this characteristic—that the demonstration is closely connected with the essential nature of the proposition to be established.

In reference to the relations which exist between the sides of a triangle and the segments formed by perpendiculars let fall from the summits, we will, once for all, recommend to the teacher, to exercise his students in making numerical applications of relations of that kind, as often as they shall present themselves in the course of geometry. This is the way to cause their meaning to be well understood, to fix them in the mind of students, and to give these the exercise in numerical calculation to which we positively require them to be habituated.

The theory of similar figures has a direct application in the art of surveying for plans (*Lever des plans*). We wish that this application should be given to the pupils in detail; that they should be taught to range out and measure a straight line on the ground; that a graphometer should be placed in their hands; and that they should use it and the chain to obtain on the ground, for themselves, all the data necessary for the construction of a map, which they will present to the examiners with the calculations in the margins.

It is true that a more complete study of this subject will have to be subsequently made by means of trigonometry, in which calculation will give more precision than these graphical operations. But some pupils may fail to extend their studies to trigonometry (the course given for the Polytechnic school having become the model for general instruction in France), and those who do will thus learn that trigonometry merely gives means of more precise calculation. This application will also be

an encouragement to the study of a science whose utility the pupil will thus begin to comprehend.

It is common to say that an angle is measured by the arc of a circle, described from its summit or centre, and intercepted between its sides. It is true that teachers add, that since a quantity cannot be measured except by one of the same nature, and since the arc of a circle is of a different nature from an angle, the preceding enunciation is only an abridgment of the proposition by which we find the ratio of an angle to a right angle. Despite this precaution, the unqualified enunciation which precedes, causes uncertainty in the mind of the pupil, and produces in it a lamentable confusion. We will say as much of the following enunciations: "A dihedral angle is measured by the plane angle included between its sides;" "The surface of a spherical triangle is measured by the excess of the sum of its three angles above two right angles," etc.; enunciations which have no meaning in themselves, and from which every trace of homogeneity has disappeared. Now that everybody is requiring that the students of the Polytechnic school should better understand the meaning of the formulas which they are taught, which requires that their homogeneity should always be apparent, this should be attended to from the beginning of their studies, in geometry as well as in arithmetic. The examiners must therefore insist that the pupils shall never give them any enunciations in which homogeneity is not preserved.

The proportionality of the circumferences of circles to their radii must be inferred *directly* from the proportionality of the perimeters of regular polygons, of the same number of sides, to their apothems. In like manner, from the area of a regular polygon being measured by half of the product of its perimeter by the radius of the inscribed circle, it must be *directly* inferred that the area of a circle is measured by half of the product of its circumference by its radius. For a long time, these properties of the circle were differently demonstrated by proving, for example, with Legendre, that the measure of the circle could not be either smaller or greater than that which we have just given, whence it had to be inferred that it must be equal to it. The "Council of improvement" finally decided that this method should be abandoned, and that the method of limits should alone be admitted, in the examinations, for demonstrations of this kind. This was a true advance, but it was not sufficient. It did not, as it should, go on to consider the circle, purely and simply, as the limit of a series of regular polygons, the number of whose sides goes on increasing to infinity, and to regard the circle as possessing every property demonstrated for polygons. Instead of this, they inscribed and circumscribed to the circle two polygons of the same number of sides, and

proved that, by the multiplication of the number of the sides of these polygons, the difference of their areas might become smaller than any given quantity, and thence, finally, deduced the measure of the area of the circle; that is to say, they took away from the method of limits all its advantage as to simplicity, by not applying it *frankly*.

We now ask that this shall cease; and that we shall no longer reproach for want of rigor, the Lagranges, the Laplaces, the Poissons, and Leibnitz, who has given us this principle: that "A curvilinear figure may be regarded as equivalent to a polygon of an infinite number of sides; whence it follows that whatsoever can be demonstrated of such a polygon, no regard being paid to the number of its sides, the same may be asserted of the curve." This is the principle for *the most simple* application of which to the measure of the circle and of the round bodies we appeal.

Whatever may be the formulas which may be given to the pupils for the determination of the ratio of the circumference to the diameter (the "Method of isoperimeters" is to be recommended for its simplicity), they must be required to perform the calculation, so as to obtain at least two or three exact decimals. These calculations, made with logarithms, must be methodically arranged and presented at the examination. It may be known whether the candidate is really the author of the papers, by calling for explanations on some of the steps, or making him calculate some points afresh.

The enunciations relating to the measurement of areas too often leave indistinctness in the minds of students, doubtless because of their form. We desire to make them better comprehended, by insisting on their application by means of a great number of examples.

As one application, we require the knowledge of the methods of surveying for content (*arpentage*), differing somewhat from the method of triangulation, used in the surveying for plans (*lever des plans*). To make this application more fruitful, the ground should be bounded on one side by an irregular curve. The pupils will not only thus learn how to overcome this practical difficulty, but they will find, in the calculation of the surface by means of trapezoids, the first application of the method of quadratures, with which it is important that they should very early become familiar. This application will constitute a new sheet of drawing and calculations to be presented at the examination.

Most of our remarks on plane geometry apply to geometry of three dimensions. Care should be taken always to leave homogeneity apparent, and to make numerous applications to the measurement of volumes.

The theory of similar polyhedrons often gives rise in the examinations of the students to serious difficulties on their part. These difficulties be-
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long rather to the form than to the substance, and to the manner in which each individual mind seizes relations of position; relations always easier to feel than to express. The examiners should be content with arriving at the results enunciated in our programme, by the shortest and easiest road.

The simplicity desired cannot however be attained unless all have a common starting-point, in the definition of similar polyhedrons. The best course is assuredly to consider that theory in the point of view in which it is employed in the arts, especially in sculpture; i. e. to conceive the given system of points, M, N, P, \dots to have lines passing from them through a point S , the *pole of similitude*, and prolonged beyond it to M', N', P', \dots so that SM', SN', SP', \dots are proportional to SM, SN, SP, \dots . Then the points M', N', P', \dots form a system similar to M, N, P, \dots .

The areas and volumes of the cylinder, of the cone, and of the sphere must be deduced from the areas and from the volumes of the prism, of the pyramid, and of the polygonal sector, with the same simplicity which we have required for the measure of the surface of the circle, and for the same reasons. It is, besides, the only means of easily extending to cones and cylinders with any bases whatever, right or oblique, those properties of cones and cylinders,—right and with circular bases,—which are applicable to them.

Numerical examples of the calculations, by logarithms, of these areas and volumes, including the area of a spherical triangle, will make another sheet to be presented to the examiners.

PROGRAMME OF GEOMETRY.

1. OF PLANE FIGURES.

Measure of the distance of two points.—Two finite right lines being given, to find their common measure, or at least their approximate ratio.

Of angles.—Right, acute, obtuse angles.—Angles vertically opposite are equal.

Of triangles.—Angles and sides.—The simplest cases of equality.—Elementary problems on the construction of angles and of triangles.

Of perpendiculars and of oblique lines.

Among all the lines that can be drawn from a given point to a given right line, the perpendicular is the shortest, and the oblique lines are longer in proportion to their divergence from the foot of the perpendicular.

Properties of the isosceles triangle.—Problems on tracing perpendiculars.—Division of a given straight line into equal parts.

Cases of equality of right-angled triangles.

Of parallel lines.

Properties of the angles formed by two parallels and a secant.—Reciprocally, when these properties exist for two right lines and a common secant, the two lines are parallel.*—Through a given point, to draw a right line parallel to a given right line, or cutting it at a given angle.—Equality of angles having their sides parallel and their openings placed in the same direction.

* It will be admitted, as a postulate, that only one parallel to a given right line can pass through a given point.

Sum of the angles of a triangle.

The parts of parallels intercepted between parallels are equal, and reciprocally.

Three parallels always divide any two right lines into proportional parts. The ratio of these parts may be incommensurable.—Application to the case in which a right line is drawn, in a triangle, parallel to one of its sides.

To find a fourth proportional to three given lines.

The right line, which bisects one of the angles of a triangle, divides the opposite side into two segments proportional to the adjacent sides.

Of similar triangles.

Conditions of similitude.—To construct on a given right line, a triangle similar to a given triangle.

Any number of right lines, passing through the same point and met by two parallels, are divided by these parallels into proportional parts, and divide them also into proportional parts.—To divide a given right line in the same manner as another is divided.—Division of a right line into equal parts.

If from the right angle of a right-angled triangle a perpendicular is let fall upon the hypotenuse, 1° this perpendicular will divide the triangle into two others which will be similar to it, and therefore to each other; 2° it will divide the hypotenuse into two segments, such that each side of the right angle will be a mean proportional between the adjacent segment and the entire hypotenuse; 3° the perpendicular will be a mean proportional between the two segments of the hypotenuse.

In a right-angled triangle, the square of the number which expresses the length of the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares of the numbers which express the lengths of the other two sides.

The three sides of any triangle being expressed in numbers, if from the extremity of one of the sides a perpendicular is let fall on one of the other sides, the square of the first side will be equal to the sum of the squares of the other two, *minus* twice the product of the side on which the perpendicular is let fall by the distance of that perpendicular from the angle opposite to the first side, if the angle is *acute*, and *plus* twice the same product, if this angle is *obtuse*.

Of polygons.

Parallelograms.—Properties of their angles and of their diagonals.

Division of polygons into triangles.—Sum of their interior angles.—Equality and construction of polygons.

Similar polygons.—Their decomposition into similar triangles.—The right lines similarly situated in the two polygons are proportional to the homologous sides of the polygons.—To construct, on a given line, a polygon similar to a given polygon.—The perimeters of two similar polygons are to each other as the homologous sides of these polygons.

Of the right line and the circumference of the circle.

Simultaneous equality of arcs and chords in the same circle.—The greatest arc has the greatest chord, and reciprocally.—Two arcs being given in the same circle or in equal circles, to find the ratio of their lengths.

Every right line drawn perpendicular to a chord at its middle, passes through the centre of the circle and through the middle of the arc subtended by the chord.—Division of an arc into two equal parts.—To pass the circumference of a circle through three points not in the same right line.

The tangent at any point of a circumference is perpendicular to the radius passing through that point.

The arcs intercepted in the same circle between two parallel chords, or between a tangent and a parallel chord, are equal.

Measure of angles.

If from the summits of two angles two arcs of circles be described with the same radius, the ratio of the arcs included between the sides of each angle will be the same as that of these angles.—Division of the circumference into degrees, minutes, and seconds.—Use of the protractor.

An angle having its summit placed, 1° at the centre of a circle; 2° on the circumference of that circle; 3° within the circle between the centre and the circumference; 4° without the circle, but so that its sides cut the circumference; to determine the ratio of that angle to the right angle, by the consideration of the arc included between its sides.

From a given point without a circle, to draw a tangent to that circle.

To describe, on a given line, a segment of a circle capable of containing a given angle.

To make surveys for plans. (Lever des plans.)

Tracing a straight line on the ground.—Measuring that line with the chain.

Measuring angles with the graphometer.—Description of it.

Drawing the plan on paper.—Scale of reduction.—Use of the rule, the triangle, and the protractor.

To determine the distance of an inaccessible object, with or without the graphometer.

Three points, A, B, C, being situated on a smooth surface and represented on a map, to find thereon the point P from which the distances AB and AC have been seen under given angles. "The problem of the three points." "The *Trilinear* problem."

Of the contact and of the intersection of circles.

Two circles which pass through the same point of the right line which joins their centres have in common only that point in which they touch; and reciprocally, if two circles touch, their centres and the point of contact lie in the same right line.

Conditions which must exist in order that two circles may intersect.

Properties of the secants of the circle.

Two secants which start from the same point without the circle, being prolonged to the most distant part of the circumference, are reciprocally proportional to their exterior segments.—The tangent is a mean proportional between the secant and its exterior segment.

Two chords intersecting within a circle divide each other into parts reciprocally proportional.—The line perpendicular to a diameter and terminated by the circumference, is a mean proportional between the two segments of the diameter.

A chord, passing through the extremity of the diameter, is a mean proportional between the diameter and the segment formed by the perpendicular let fall from the other extremity of that chord.—To find a mean proportional between two given lines.

To divide a line in extreme and mean ratio.—The length of the line being given numerically, to calculate the numerical value of each of the segments.

Of polygons inscribed and circumscribed to the circle.

To inscribe or circumscribe a circle to a given triangle.

Every regular polygon can be inscribed and circumscribed to the circle.

A regular polygon being inscribed in a circle, 1^o to inscribe in the same circle a polygon of twice as many sides, and to find the length of one of the sides of the second polygon; 2^o to circumscribe about the circle a regular polygon of the same number of sides, and to express the side of the circumscribed polygon by means of the side of the corresponding inscribed polygon.

To inscribe in a circle polygons of 4, 8, 16, 32, sides.

To inscribe in a circle polygons of 3, 6, 12, 24, sides.

To inscribe in a circle polygons of 5, 10, 20, 40, sides.

To inscribe in a circle polygons of 15, 30, 60, sides.

Regular polygons of the same number of sides are similar, and their perimeters are to each other as the radii of the circles to which they are inscribed or circumscribed.—The circumferences of circles are to each other as their radii.

To find the approximate ratio of the circumference to the diameter.

Of the area of polygons and of that of the circle.

Two parallelograms of the same base and of the same height are equivalent.—Two triangles of the same base and height are equivalent.

The area of a rectangle and that of a parallelogram are equal to the product of the base by the height.—What must be understood by that enunciation.—The area of a triangle is measured by half of the product of the base by the height.

To transform any polygon into an equivalent square.—Measure of the area of a polygon.—Measure of the area of a trapezoid.

The square constructed on the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle is equivalent to the sum of the squares constructed on the other two sides.—The squares constructed on the two sides of the right angle of a right-angled triangle and on the hypotenuse are to each other as the adjacent segments and entire hypotenuse.

The areas of similar polygons are to each other as the squares of the homologous sides of the polygons.

Notions on surveying for content (*arpentage*).—Method of decomposition into triangles.—Simpler method of decomposition into trapezoids.—Surveyor's cross.—Practical solution, when the ground is bounded, in one or more parts, by a curved line.

The area of a regular polygon is measured by half of the product of its perimeter by the radius of the inscribed circle.—The area of a circle is measured by half of the product of the circumference by the radius.—The areas of circles are to each other as the squares of the radii.

The area of a sector of a circle is measured by half of the product of the arc by the radius.—Measure of the area of a segment of a circle.

2. OF PLANES AND BODIES TERMINATED BY PLANE SURFACES.

Conditions required to render a right line and a plane respectively perpendicular. Of all the lines which can be drawn from a given point to a given plane, the perpendicular is the shortest, and the oblique lines are longer in proportion to their divergence from the foot of the perpendicular.

Parallel right lines and planes.—Angles which have their sides parallel, and their openings turned in the same direction, are equal, although situated in different planes.

Dihedral angle.—How to measure the ratio of any dihedral angle to the right dihedral angle.

Planes perpendicular to each other.—The intersection of two planes perpendicular to a third plane, is perpendicular to this third plane.

Parallel planes.—When two parallel planes are cut by a third plane the intersections are parallel.—Two parallel planes have their perpendiculars common to both.

The shortest distance between two right lines, not intersecting and not parallel.

Two right lines comprised between two parallel planes are always divided into proportional parts by a third plane parallel to the first two.

Trihedral angle.—The sum of any two of the plane angles which compose a trihedral angle is always greater than the third.

The sum of the plane angles which form a convex polyhedral angle is always less than four right angles.

If two trihedral angles are formed by the same plane angles, the dihedral angles comprised between the equal plane angles are equal.—There may be absolute equality or simple symmetry between the two trihedral angles.

Of polyhedrons.

If two tetrahedrons have each a trihedral angle composed of equal and similarly arranged triangles, these tetrahedrons are equal. They are also equal if two faces of the one are equal to two faces of the other, are arranged in the same manner, and form with each other the same dihedral angle.

When the triangles which form two homologous trihedral angles of two tetrahedrons are similar, each to each, and similarly disposed, these tetrahedrons are similar. They are also similar if two faces of the one, making with each other the same angle as two faces of the other, are also similar to these latter, and are united by homologous sides and summits.

Similar pyramids.—A plane parallel to the base of a pyramid cuts off from it a pyramid similar to it.—To find the height of a pyramid when we know the dimension of its trunk with parallel bases.

Sections made in any two pyramids at the same distance from these summits are in a constant ratio.

Parallelepipedon.—Its diagonals.

Any polyhedron can always be divided into triangular pyramids.—Two bodies composed of the same number of equal and similarly disposed triangular pyramids, are equal.

Similar polyhedrons.

The homologous edges of similar polyhedrons are proportional; as are also the diagonals of the homologous faces and the interior diagonals of the polyhedrons.—The areas of similar polyhedrons are as the squares of the homologous edges.

Measure of volumes.

Two parallelepipedons of the same base and of the same height are equivalent in volume.

If a parallelogram be constructed on the base of a triangular prism, and on that parallelogram, taken as a base, there be constructed a parallelepipedon of the same height as the triangular prism, the volume of this prism will be half of the volume of the parallelepipedon.—Two triangular prisms of the same base and the same height are equivalent.

Two tetrahedrons of the same base and the same height are equivalent.

A tetrahedron is equivalent to the third of the triangular prism of the same base and the same height.

The volume of any parallelepipedon is equal to the product of its base by its height.—What must be understood by that enunciation.—The volume of any prism is equal to the product of its base by its height.

The volume of a tetrahedron and that of any pyramid are measured by the third of the product of the base by the height.

Volume of the truncated oblique triangular prism.

The volumes of two similar polyhedrons are to each other as the cubes of the homologous edges.

3. OF ROUND BODIES.

Of the right cone with circular base.

Sections parallel to the base.—Having the dimensions of the trunk of a cone with parallel bases, to find the height of the entire cone.

The area of a right cone is measured by half of the product of the circumference of its circular base by its side.—Area of a trunk of a right cone with parallel bases.

Volume of a pyramid inscribed in the cone.—The volume of a cone is measured by the third of the product of the area of its base by its height.

Which of the preceding properties belong to the cone of any base whatever?

Of the right cylinder with circular base.

Sections parallel to the base.

The area of the convex surface of the right cylinder is measured by the product of the circumference of its base by its height.—This is also true of the right cylinder of any base.

Measure of the volume of a prism inscribed in the cylinder.—The volume of a right cylinder is measured by the product of the area of its base by its height.—This is also true of any cylinder, right or oblique, of any base whatever.

Of the sphere.

Every section of the sphere, made by a plane, is a circle.—Great circles and small circles.

In every spherical triangle any one side is less than the sum of the other two. The shortest path from one point to another, on the surface of the sphere, is the arc of a great circle which joins the two given points.

The sum of the sides of a spherical triangle, or of any spherical polygon, is less than the circumference of a great circle.

Poles of an arc of a great or small circle.—They serve to trace arcs of circles on the sphere.

Every plane perpendicular to the extremity of a radius is tangent to the sphere.

Measure of the angle of two arcs of great circles.

Properties of the polar or supplementary triangle.

Two spherical triangles situated on the same sphere, or on equal spheres, are equal in all their parts, 1° when they have an equal angle included between sides respectively equal; 2° when they have an equal side adjacent to two angles respectively equal; 3° when they are mutually equilateral; 4° when they are mutually equiangular. In these different cases the triangles may be equal, or merely symmetrical.

The sum of the angles of any spherical triangle is less than six, and greater than two, right angles.

The lune is to the surface of the sphere as the angle of that lune is to four right angles.

Two symmetrical spherical triangles are equivalent in surface.

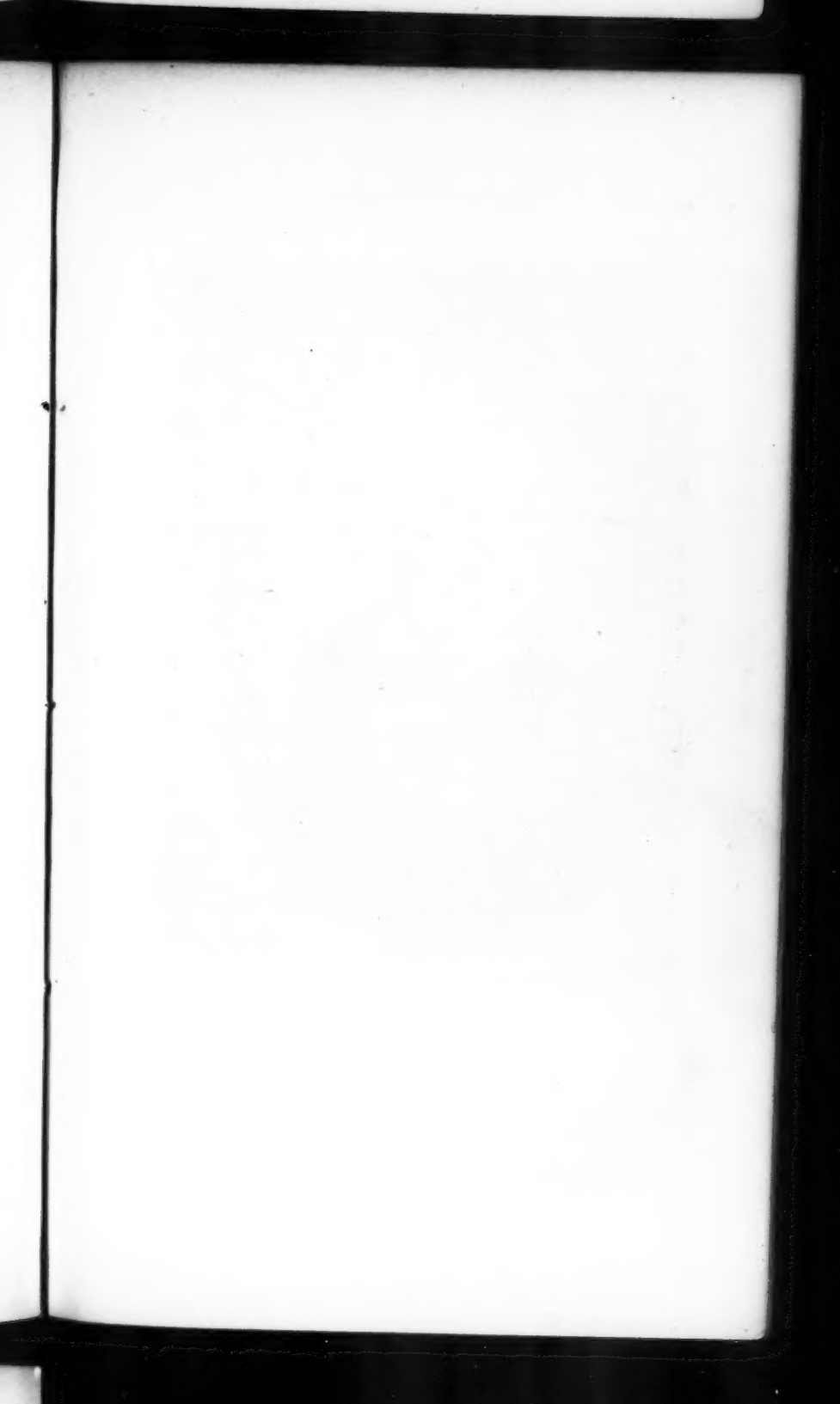
The area of a spherical triangle is to that of the whole sphere as the excess of the sum of its angles above two right angles is to eight right angles.

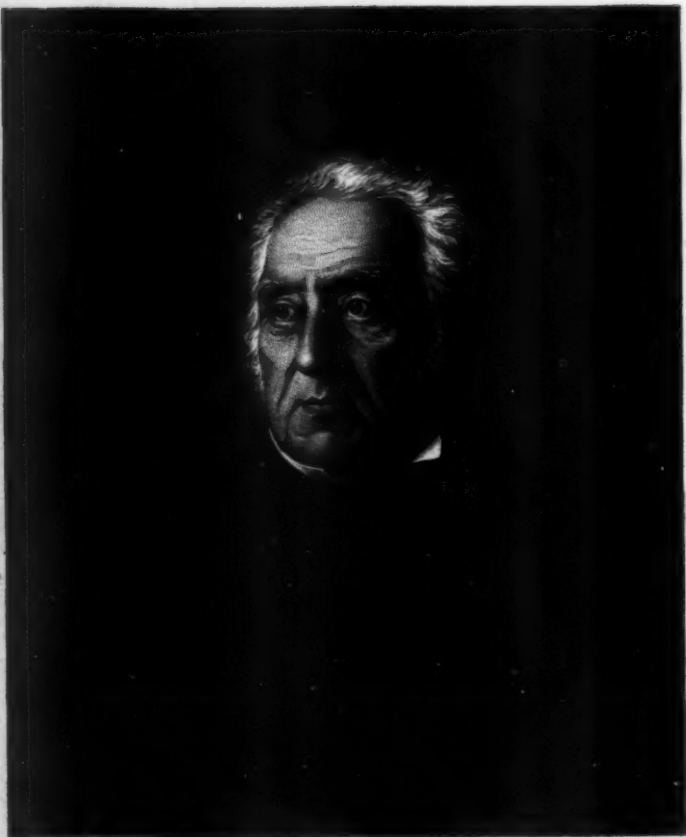
When a portion of a regular polygon, inscribed in the generating circle of the sphere, turns around the diameter of that circle, the convex area engendered is measured by the product of its height by the circumference of the circle inscribed in the generating polygon.—The volume of the corresponding polygonal sector is measured by the area thus described, multiplied by the third of the radius of the inscribed circle.

The surface of a spherical zone is equal to the height of that zone multiplied by the circumference of a great circle.—The surface of the sphere is quadruple that of a great circle.

Every spherical sector is measured by the zone which forms its base, multiplied by the third of the radius. The whole sphere is measured by its surface multiplied by the third of its radius.

[To be concluded in the next number.]





Gambardella Pinxt

Eng^d by H.W. Smith.

Your Obedt: Serv^t -
M. Dickinson



BENEFACTORS OF EDUCATION, LITERATURE AND SCIENCE.*

THOMAS HANDASYD PERKINS.

THOMAS HANDASYD PERKINS, whose name is indissolubly and honorably associated with one of the most interesting educational charities of our age and country, was born in Boston, December 15th, 1764. His father was a merchant, who died in middle age, leaving a widow and eight children, most of them very young. His mother was a woman of excellent principles and remarkable energy, and reared her children with such advantages as fitted them for stations of responsibility, which they afterwards filled with credit to themselves and to her. She took an active part in the charitable associations of Boston, and, on her decease in 1807, the officers of the Female Asylum "voted to wear a badge of mourning for the term of seventy-one days" (corresponding probably to the years of her life), "in token of their high consideration and respect for the virtues of the deceased, and of their grateful and affectionate sense of her liberal and essential patronage as a founder and friend of the institution."

His mother decided on giving him a collegiate education, and he was sent, with other boys from Boston, to an instructor at Hingham, the Rev. Mr. Shute, noted for his success in preparing lads for college. After residing there three years, and being prepared for Cambridge, he was so reluctant to enter college, that it was decided that he should go into a counting-house.† He was strongly inclined by

* This sketch is abridged, by permission of the author, from an article in *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine* for July, 1855, with some facts gleaned from the "*Biography of Thomas Handasyd Perkins*," by Thomas G. Cary, published by Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1856. This volume, published in a cheaper form, would be a fit companion for the "*Life and Correspondence of Amos Lawrence*," in School Libraries, and in the hands of every young man destined for a commercial career.

† Long afterward he recurred to this decision with regret for having relinquished such a privilege, and in advanced age repeatedly said that, other things being equal (which condition he repeated emphatically), he should prefer for commercial pursuits those who had received the most complete education. In this opinion he seems to have coincided with another experienced merchant, who once gave it as the result of his observation in a long life, that as a general rule applied to the whole class of commercial men, of whom it is well known that a considerable proportion fail, those had succeeded best who were the best educated. It derives confirmation too, from a fact generally noticed, both here and in Europe, by those who know what goes on in the public schools where lads are prepared by different courses of study respectively, either for college or for mercantile life, as their friends prefer. Those who are engaged in classical studies for most of the week, and give but a small portion of it to other pursuits, are generally found to be well up in arithmetic, geography, &c., with those who bestow their whole time on such branches.

Without underrating the importance of a habit of attention to detail, or the knowledge of minute affairs and the qualities of merchandise, which may be acquired by early apprenticeship.

temperament to active life. Vigorous and bold, with a frame peculiarly fitted for endurance, which was afterwards developed in fine proportions for strength and beauty in manhood, he saw less to attract him in the life of a student than in one of enterprise, where he might indulge a love of adventure and exercise the courage, equal to almost every emergency, which characterized him. He was placed with the Messrs. Shattuck, then among the most active merchants of Boston, with whom he remained until he was twenty-one.

On leaving the Messrs. Shattuck, in 1785, not being well, he was advised to pass the winter in a warm climate, and visited his elder brother, Mr. James Perkins, in St. Domingo, with whom he formed a business connection which was very successful.

The climate of St. Domingo not agreeing with his health, he returned to Boston in 1788, when he was married to Miss Jane Elliot, only daughter of Simon Elliot, Esq., — a union of affection which lasted for more than sixty years. In 1789 he turned his attention to trade with China, and sailed from Boston as supercargo of the ship *Astræa*, bound to Batavia and Canton. This voyage enlarged the horizon of his knowledge and aspirations, and led, in 1792, on the breaking up of his brother's house in St. Domingo by the revolutionary disturbance in that island, to a co-partnership with that brother, under the firm of J. & T. H. Perkins, which continued until the death of the senior member* in 1822. From that time till 1838 the business of the house was continued under the title of Perkins & Co., when it was dissolved, and Col. Perkins withdrew with a large fortune, after having been actively engaged for fifty years in commer-

ship, it is to be remembered that men of high culture, who mean to effect what they attempt, show great aptitude for the minutie, as well as for the general scope, of any new business which they undertake, and that intellect well disciplined has considerable advantages in comparison with routine.

* James Perkins, Esq., died in the year 1822. The following passages from a notice of his death, published at the time, show the estimation in which he was held :

"While his real and most eloquent eulogy is to be sought in the course of an industrious, honorable, and most useful life, it is due to the virtues he practised, to the example he set, to the noble standard of character on which he acted, not to be entirely silent, now that nothing remains of them but their honored memory. He had received in boyhood, under the care of an excellent mother, the preparatory instruction which might have fitted him for an academical education ; but the approach of the Revolutionary War, and the discouraging aspect of the times, dictated the commercial career as more prudent.

"In enterprises extending over the habitable globe, employing thousands of agents, constantly involving fortunes in their result, and requiring, on many occasions necessarily incident to business of this extent, no secondary degree of firmness and courage, not a shadow of suspicion of anything derogatory to the highest and purest sense of honor and conscience ever attached to his conduct. The character of such a man ought to be held up for imitation."

Mr. James Perkins left a large fortune, acquired in this honorable course ; and is still remembered for distinguished liberality in all appeals, that were made when he lived, for charity or public good, to the affluent and generous in the community ; for his liberal donations to several institutions ; and especially for a munificent gift of real estate, of the value of about \$30,000, to the Boston Athenæum, and the bequest of \$30,000 more to the University at Cambridge.

cial transactions, which extended over the habitable globe, and employed thousands of agents, and involved fortunes in their result, without a shadow of suspicion resting on his credit or his honor.*

In this commercial business he travelled much, visiting everywhere objects of interest in natural scenery and the arts, making himself agreeable and useful to those whom he incidentally fell in with as fellow-travellers, and abroad leaving a very favorable impression of the character of his countrymen. When in France, in 1795, he witnessed the execution of Robespierre, and at the suggestion of our minister, Mr. Munroe, assisted in sending George Washington Lafayette out of Paris to this country, and in enabling the Marchioness to go with her daughters to Olmutz, and solace her husband in his deplorable confinement there. For this prompt, hazardous, and liberal interference in his behalf, he received the cordial thanks of Lafayette (who declared that the solace of the presence of his family thus secured to him had saved his life), and was afterwards invited to make General Washington a visit at his own residence at Mount Vernon.

Col. Perkins, although he took a lively interest in all that concerned the welfare of the community in which he lived, and was called to assist in the direction of public meetings, and to lead on important committees, was not ambitious of political distinction. He was, for a time, President of the Boston Branch of the United States Bank, was elected to the Senate of Massachusetts in 1807, and for twenty years afterwards was member of that body, or of the House of Representatives, was repeatedly solicited to accept a nomination for Congress, and at one time declined to take office in the national government as Secretary of the Navy. His large commercial engagements compelled him to hold all other demands on his time and attention in a subordinate place. In his own field of labor he exhibited an energy, forecast, diligence, liberality, and integrity, which could not be surpassed, and which were crowned with the most successful results. Far beyond any service which he might have rendered to the public by accepting any political trust, even though he should have discharged its duties with the highest success, we must rank the influence of his example in making GIVING to objects of science, education, and literature, as well as of charity and religion, A DUTY AND A HABIT of Boston merchants while living.

* Col. Perkins derived the military title which was associated for more than fifty years with his name, from his having been made in 1796 commander of a military corps, which constituted the guard and escort for public occasions of the Governor in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The command was conferred at a time when the title was supposed to express for the wearer of it "that high and honorable feeling which makes gentlemen soldiers, and soldiers gentlemen."

In 1814 he took an active and very important part in measures for establishing the Massachusetts General Hospital with an asylum for the insane, the necessity for which had begun to be deeply felt. He was one of those to whom an act of incorporation had been granted for the purpose, with a valuable donation from the Commonwealth, on the condition that the sum of one hundred thousand dollars should be raised by subscription within a limited time. His name was at the head of the first list of trustees, and he undertook the work which his position involved with characteristic energy. His influence and his services were highly appreciated by those with whom he was engaged in that undertaking. The subscriptions were made on the condition that the full sum of one hundred thousand dollars should be obtained; so that the whole depended on entire success. Besides his exertions in rousing other subscribers, he and his elder brother contributed five thousand dollars each towards the fund, and it was completed agreeably to the terms of condition.

In 1826 it was proposed to raise a considerable sum for additions to the Athenæum. Something over thirty thousand dollars was required. Col. Perkins and his nephew, Mr. James Perkins, son and sole heir of his deceased brother, contributed one half of it, paying eight thousand dollars each, on the condition that the same amount should be subscribed by the public, which was done. He made other valuable donations to the Athenæum, and was, for several years, president of that institution.

Soon after this, having witnessed the successful commencement of railroads in England, he resolved to introduce them here; and having obtained a charter for the Granite Railway Company, he caused one or two miles in length to be made, for the purpose of transporting granite from the quarries in Quincy to the water. This was the first railroad built in this country, though there was a rough contrivance in Pennsylvania for the removal of coal, which is said to have preceded it.

In 1833 a movement was made to obtain funds for the establishment of a school for blind children in Boston. Having been deeply interested by an exhibition given to show their capacity for improvement, he made a donation of his mansion-house in Pearl-street, as a place for their residence. He gave it on the condition that the sum of fifty thousand dollars should be contributed by the public as a fund to aid in their support. Efforts were made accordingly to effect that object, and proved to be entirely successful. The school was thus placed on a stable foundation, and by means that insured it continued care. The incitement which had thus been offered to the community to secure so valuable an estate as a gift to the public, roused general attention to the subject that could induce such a donation. Mutual

sympathy in endeavoring to effect the purpose was a natural result. This became widely diffused. An institution which thus offered intelligence, enjoyment, and usefulness, in the place of ignorance, sorrow, and idleness, was recognized by the government of the state as deserving aid from the Commonwealth, and liberal public provision was made for the education there of blind children whose parents needed assistance.

Under the direction of Dr. S. G. Howe, it has been eminently successful, and is known through the country as an important example of what may be done. Indeed, it may be said further, that the country itself is more widely and favorably known in the Old World, from the annual reports of what has been effected there, not only by improvements in the art of printing for the blind, but by new discoveries in the possibility of instruction, which he has demonstrated.

The publications from the press of the institution, under his care, probably comprise more matter than all the other works in the English language that have ever been published for the use of the blind; and, at the recent "Exhibition of the Works of Industry of all Nations" in the Crystal Palace of London, the prize medal was awarded to his specimens for the best system of letters and the best mode of printing such books. But, beyond this, Dr. Howe has enlarged the science of mind by reaching and developing the intellect of the blind and deaf mute, shut up from human intercourse by obstruction in all the avenues of the senses but one; and proved that the single sense of touch can be made the medium for effectual instruction in reading and writing, and for the free interchange even of the most refined and delicate sentiments that are known to the heart of woman. In this he was the first to reduce to certainty what had before been only a problem, and has shown that there is no solid ground for the principle of law on the subject, as laid down by Blackstone, that "a man who is born deaf, dumb, and blind, is looked upon by the law as in the same state with an idiot; he being supposed incapable of any understanding, as wanting all those senses which furnish the human mind with ideas."

The estate given by Col. Perkins, although spacious in extent, was becoming, from its position, better suited for purposes of trade than of residence. From the same cause, however, it was rising in pecuniary value, and not long afterwards it was exchanged, with his consent, he releasing all conditional rights of reversion, for a large edifice in the suburbs, built for another purpose, but admirably adapted, by location and structure, for the residence of young people. It overlooks the harbor, is secure by its elevation from any interruption of light or air, and affords ample room for all who may desire to come.

The institution bears his name. That something important would

have eventually been done in Massachusetts for the education of the blind, even if he had rendered no assistance, cannot be doubted. Dr. John D. Fisher, a physician of great worth, to whose memory a monument has been erected at Mt. Auburn, for his early exertions in the cause, moving almost unaided, had previously obtained an act of incorporation from the Legislature for the purpose; and Edward Brooks, Esq., and Mr. Prescott, the historian, with some other gentlemen, had united with him to promote it. What followed is in a great measure to be attributed to their preparatory movements. But Col. Perkins, by the impulse of a powerful hand, suddenly roused the community to aid in the project, and placed it at once in an advanced position, which otherwise it probably would have required the lapse of many years, with arduous exertions, to attain. At that time the institutions for the blind in England were little more than workshops, affording hardly any instruction except for manual labor, and no printing, though two small books had been printed in Scotland. But through his aid and advice the means were obtained and effectually applied for an establishment on a more liberal plan, giving the precedence to intellectual and moral education. There is little doubt, therefore, that a large portion of the good which has been effected thus far, within the institution, and by its example elsewhere, is the result of his munificent donation, and the wise condition which he attached to it.

It should be remarked here, however, to guard against any mistake detrimental to the interest of the blind, that while the pupils are placed, through his means, in a building which might give the impression that its inhabitants are likely to be in want of nothing, the institution is by no means richly endowed. The money that has been liberally given has been liberally spent in the cause of education; and those who are inclined to give or leave any portion of their wealth for the relief of misfortune, should be informed that the blind still need, and humbly hope to be remembered. There can hardly be any class of persons to whom books, and a large library of books, can afford so great a delight as those whose sources of enjoyment do not include that of sight; and, after reading in the report of the juries on the awards at the exhibition of the Crystal Palace in London, ten close pages, that are devoted to the subject of printing for the blind, with an historical sketch in which marked prominence has been given to what has been done at "THE PERKINS INSTITUTION IN BOSTON," it can hardly be heard without sorrow that the printing there is suspended for want of pecuniary means; and that the publication of the Cyclopaedia in twenty volumes, probably the most valuable work, with the exception of the Bible, that has ever been attempted for the blind, was necessarily stopped with the eighth volume.

After his retirement from commerce, in 1838, Col. Perkins found sufficient occupation in the management of his property; in various matters of a public nature which interested him; and in the cultivation of trees, and particularly of fruits and flowers, on his estate at Brookline. He was remarkable for his love of nature; and in travelling sometimes went far out of his way to examine a beautiful tree, or to enjoy an interesting view. Occasionally he made a voyage to Europe, renewing his observations on the changes and improvements that were to be seen there. He had crossed the Atlantic many times, always keeping a diary, which he filled with the incidents that occurred, with the results of his inquiries, and with remarks worthy of an intelligent traveller; and sending home works of art, some of which were bestowed as gifts. He took a lively interest in the progress and welfare of American artists, kindly aiding some who desired to improve by studying the great models in Europe, and liberally purchasing the works of those who deserved encouragement. He was generally very agreeable to those with whom he fell in as fellow-travellers; and where he became known abroad as an American, he left a very favorable impression of the character of his countrymen.

Active industry had been and continued to be the habit of his life. The day with him was well occupied, and equally well ordered. He had long been accustomed to rise early, to consider what required his attention, and to prepare so much of what he had to do personally as he could perform by himself, that he might meet the world ready to decide and direct promptly and clearly. This enabled him to transact business with ease and accuracy, and made him so far master of his time that he found leisure for various objects, both of usefulness and enjoyment, as well as for courteous and kind attention to the affairs and wishes of others, which it might have been supposed would hardly be remembered by one so occupied. Each day with him was the illustration of a thought which young men, and particularly young men entering on commercial life, will find to be a safeguard against precipitation or perplexity, and against the irritation as well as the miserable shifts to which they sometimes lead. The action of the mind in preparing with calm foresight what is to be done, before it is absolutely necessary, is widely different from its action when affairs are left until necessity presses, and the powers are confused by various calls on the attention in the midst of hurry and embarrassment. What is only method in the first case actually becomes a faculty, and sometimes passes for uncommon ability, of which it has the effect. On the other hand, some men, who really show great powers when pressed by necessity for despatch, are in truth unable, without being aware of such a defect, to foresee and prepare what they have to do before they feel the pressure. When that ceases, the exertion too

often ceases with it; and important matters are left to be done at some future time, which perhaps are never done. The older they grow the more incurable is the evil, and melancholy instances might be given of bankruptcy late in life, after great success, which might be traced chiefly to this cause. It is said that the Hon. Peter C. Brooks, of Boston, who left a large fortune, after a life well worthy of imitation, on being once asked what rule he would recommend to a young man as most likely to ensure success, answered, "Let him mind his business;" and to a similar inquiry, it has been said that Robert Lenox, Esq., of New York, well remembered as one of the most distinguished and estimable merchants ever known in that great city, and for his wide hospitality, once answered, "Let him be beforehand with his business."

Numerous instances might be given of his kindness in promoting the success of others, and particularly of young men engaging in voyages or other commercial enterprises; and he always showed a warm interest in the Mercantile Library Association of Young Men, to which he made a donation to aid in the erection of a building.

After the decease of Mrs. Perkins, some important business in which he was concerned required attention at Washington, and his courageous spirit still rising above the infirmities of age, he made one more journey there, resolved to see to it himself. While there he was concerned to find that work was likely to be suspended on the monument to the memory of Washington. On his return home, he took measures to rouse fresh interest in the work, and a considerable sum was raised for it through his exertions.

In the last year of his life, he gave one more remarkable proof of his continued interest in what was going on about him, and of his readiness to aid liberally in all that he deemed important to public welfare and intelligence. A large and costly building had been erected for the Boston Athenæum by contribution from the public, liberally made for that purpose. A fund of \$120,000 was now to be provided for annual expenses and for regular additions to the library. As Col. Perkins had already done a great deal for the Athenæum, no application was made to him for further aid. He, however, voluntarily asked for the book containing the largest class of subscriptions, and added his name to those contributing three thousand dollars each. Soon afterward he inquired of the president of the Athenæum what progress had been made, and was told that the subscriptions amounted to eighty thousand dollars, all of them being, however, on the condition that the full sum should be made up within the year; and that everything possible seemed to have been done. He then gave his assurance that the attempt should not be suffered to fail, even for so large a deficit as that. Further assistance from him, however, was rendered

unnecessary, chiefly by the noble bequest of Samuel Appleton, Esq., a man of liberality and benevolence like his own, who died during the summer, leaving the sum of two hundred thousand dollars to trustees, to be distributed at their discretion for scientific, literary, religious, or charitable purposes. The trustees appropriated twenty-five thousand dollars for this fund, and the remaining sum of fifteen thousand dollars was easily obtained by further subscriptions at large.

On the 9th of January, 1854, he found it necessary to submit to a slight surgical operation, which was successfully performed, and there was every indication that his health and life would be still further prolonged. But his race, already protracted, was run, and, becoming more and more feeble through the 10th, he fell into a state of unconsciousness toward evening, in which he continued for some hours, when he died tranquilly, early on the morning of the 11th of January, in the 90th year of his age.

The funeral service took place at the church of the Rev. Dr. Gannett, where he had long worshipped, and was marked by one incident peculiarly touching in its association. The solemn music, usual on such occasions, was impressively performed by a large choir of pupils from the Perkins' Institution for the Blind, who had requested permission to sing the requiem for that friend through whom they enjoy the comforts of their spacious dwelling.

The impression of his character left on the community was such as had been sketched, a short time before, in language that admits of no improvement, and needs no addition, by the Hon. Daniel Webster, in a note written with his own hand on the blank leaf of a copy of his works, presented to Col. Perkins:

“WASHINGTON, April 19, 1852.

“MY DEAR SIR:—If I possessed anything which I might suppose likely to be more acceptable to you, as a proof of my esteem, than these volumes, I should have sent it in their stead. But I do not; and therefore ask your acceptance of a copy of this edition of my speeches. I have long cherished, my dear sir, a profound, warm, affectionate, and, I may say, a filial regard for your person and character. I have looked upon you as one born to do good, and who has fulfilled his mission; as a man, without spot or blemish; as a merchant, known and honored over the whole world; a most liberal supporter and promoter of science and the arts; always kind to scholars and literary men, and greatly beloved by them all; friendly to all the institutions of Religion, Morality, and Education; and an unwavering and determined supporter of the Constitution of the country, and of those great principles of Civil Liberty, which it is so well calculated to uphold and advance. These sentiments I inscribe here in accordance with my best judgment, and out of the fulness of my heart; and I wish here to record, also, my deep sense of the many personal obligations under which you have placed me in the course of our long acquaintance.

“Your ever faithful friend,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

“To the Hon. THOS. H. PERKINS.”

The three institutions named in the course of the preceding memoir, as having participated more largely than other objects in the pecuniary contributions and personal efforts of Col. Perkins, are among the noblest charities and educational agencies of our age; and their rapid growth from small beginnings up to their present flourishing conditions, is highly creditable to the wise liberality of the citizens of Boston.

THE MASSACHUSETTS GENERAL HOSPITAL, with its establishment for the sick and maimed, in Boston, and its asylum for the insane, at Somerville, originated in an appeal, by Drs. James Jackson and John C. Warren, in favor of these classes, in 1810, and which has been responded to by a liberal public, until the amount of subscriptions, donations, and bequests, [including grants and privileges extended by the legislature, representing the capital sum of \$150,000,] had reached \$1,255,000 in 1851. Of this sum \$500,000 are invested in the buildings and estate appropriated to the uses of the hospital and asylum. Up to 1851, 3,341 patients had been admitted to the asylum, of whom 1,538 had been restored to their friends, clothed in their right mind; and a still larger number improved in their health and condition. Of the 13,549 sufferers received at the hospital, comforted and cared for, 4,000 were discharged well, and 6,000 more greatly relieved and permanently benefited.

THE BOSTON ATHENÆUM owes its origin to a society of gentlemen who conducted a literary publication called the "Monthly Anthology." It was called the "Anthology Society," and was formed in 1805 to continue the publication of a monthly periodical commenced by Mr. Phineas Adams, in 1804. In less than a month after the regular organization of the society, it was voted, (Oct. 23, 1805,) to establish a library of periodical publications, and in 1806, (May 2,) a public reading room, open to subscribers by paying \$10, annually. In 1807, the gentlemen who commenced the undertaking, transferred their rights, in the Anthology Reading Room and Library, to trustees, who, in 1807, were incorporated under the name of the BOSTON ATHENÆUM. In 1807, the sum of \$42,000 was raised by voluntary subscription for shares, at \$300 per share. In 1821, James Perkins gave his costly mansion, in Pearl street, which was occupied for the uses of the institution till 1849, when it was sold for the sum of \$45,000 and the avails applied toward the erection of an elegant, spacious, and convenient building in Beacon street. In 1826, Thomas Handasyd Perkins gave \$8,000, and his nephew \$8,000 more. In 1846, John Bromfield gave \$25,000, and the trustees of Nathan Appleton's estate, the further sum of \$25,000. From the trial balance of the Treasurer, dated Dec. 31, 1855, it appears that the gross sum of \$491,255 have been received for the use of the institution, of which \$86,000 have been expended in books, and \$69,871 in paintings and statuary, and \$197,438, in the building, (with the site,) occupied by the Athenæum. The Athenæum has been the parent of many similar institutions in other parts of the country.

THE PERKINS INSTITUTION AND MASSACHUSETTS ASYLUM FOR THE BLIND, originated with Dr. J. D. Fisher, who called the attention of the people of Boston, to the neglected condition of the blind, in 1828; but nothing effectual was accomplished until Dr. Samuel G. Howe, in 1832, undertook the organization of a society, and commenced the experiment of educating six blind children. In an exhibition of the proficiency of this class, Col. Perkins became deeply interested and made the munificent donation of his mansion house in Pearl street, on condition that the sum of \$50,000 should be contributed by the public, as a fund to aid in their support. From that moment the enterprise was placed on a stable foundation, and care for the blind, as a class, all over the country, was lifted into the circle of public duty and private beneficence.

To have aided materially in establishing and promoting these charities and educational agencies, entitles Col. Perkins to the grateful regard of all men. Well might Abbot Lawrence say, when closing a public meeting of the merchants of Boston, held immediately after his decease—that if ever a man deserved to have it written on his tombstone that the world was better for his having lived in it, "that man was Col. Thomas H. Perkins."

XL LETTERS TO A YOUNG TEACHER.

BY GIDEON F. THAYER,

Late Principal of Chaucy Hall School, Boston.

HAVING, in my opening letter, very briefly touched upon the general subject of school-keeping, I propose now to indicate more particularly what steps are to be taken to secure success in the objects at which you will aim. And, in my view, self-examination, self-discipline, self-government, self-renunciation, to a great extent, comprise the most obvious and certain means at your command. These will do more to promote the successful management of your school, than any set of rules, however well conceived or rigidly enforced.

To ascertain and explore the springs of action in one's own mind, is to obtain possession of the key that will unlock the minds of others; than which nothing is more important in the business you have undertaken; and nothing will give more effectual control over those intrusted to your care. And, as this is a leading object with the teacher, and one on which his usefulness mainly depends, it should be, first of all, secured. There are ten persons who fail in school-government, to one who fails in mere instruction. The extent of classical and scientific preparation is of little moment, where the capacity for government is deficient.

Self-examination, if faithfully carried out, will unfold to you natural biases and motives, of which you may now be wholly unaware. You may have been drifting forward on the stream of life, like a deserted ship on the bosom of a mighty river, heedless of your course, and trusting that the right haven would be found at last, without any special agency on your part to avoid the shoals and whirlpools, the obstructions and rocks, that lie exposed or hidden before you. You feel no "compunctious visitings" at this state of things; for you have never been roused to their contemplation. Your attention has never been called to an investigation of those ruling influences which, unknown to yourself, have hitherto led you onward in time's pathway.

You have felt no responsibility, for you have acted for yourself alone; and being, as you supposed, an exemplar or model to no other, have made no effort to alter your course.

The case is now wholly changed. What you are in motive, principle, habit, manners, will the pupils under your charge, to a greater

or less degree, become. There may be points exhibited by you before your school, which in word you steadily condemn; but powerless and ineffective will be that precept which your example opposes with its living force. Hence the necessity of this personal inspection. "Know thyself" was the injunction of an ancient philosopher; and it has been reiterated by many among the wise of modern days.

Most of those traits which make up what we call character in a man, are the results of education as developed not only by the processes of school instruction, but by whatever passes before the eye, whatever sounds upon the ear, excites the imagination, warms the heart, or moves the various passions within us; and the more frequently the mind falls under the same set of influences, the greater the probability that the character will take a stamp conformably to such influences. Hence we perceive, although with some exceptions, a marked similarity in individuals of the same parentage. But there are traits inherent in the human constitution, and widely differing from each other, as strongly marked as the instincts of animals, which lead one species to seek the air, and another the water, without any teaching whatever.

The man of nervous temperament will exhibit conduct conformable to it; the phlegmatic, to it. The acquisitive tendency produces the avaricious man; the taciturn, the silent man. Although the operations of these original elements in our species can, perhaps, never be entirely reversed, they may, under faithful training, be so qualified as to make them subserve the cause of duty and humanity; for we are never to admit that the great Creator made anything but for the promotion of the ultimate well-being of his creatures. As, on the completion of his six days' work, he saw that "it was very good," we are bound to believe that every element in man's nature, whether physical, moral, social, or intellectual, was intended to become the instrument of good in some department of the great system of things, however perversion or excessive indulgence may sometimes produce the very opposite effects. To say otherwise, would be like asserting that light is no blessing, because it may dazzle or blind the eye; or that fire is a curse, because it sometimes consumes our dwellings or destroys our treasures; or that water is our foe, because it may drown us.

It being established, then, that ours is a complex nature, and that, without an adequate knowledge of it, as existing in ourselves individually, we cannot do all in our sphere, of which we are capable, for the benefit of our fellow-beings, the acquisition of this knowledge becomes our first duty; and, especially, when we put ourselves in a position to stamp an image of our spiritual selves upon those who are committed to our influence and our training.

Our first care, then, in this business of self-inspection, is to ascertain whether we have any tendencies or proclivities that militate with our highest idea of a perfect man; whether our motives are lofty, our affections holy, our principles upright, our feelings and tastes pure, our intentions unselfish, our habits such as they should be. Every one has a bean ideal in his own mind; and, if we fall below it in any of these particulars, we are to set about bringing ourselves up to the standard we have assumed.

In this great work we shall need aid beyond ourselves. In fact, self-love will be continually blinding us, or leading us astray from a strict and righteous judgment; and, to enable us to be just, we must as constantly seek for aid where only it is to be found.

Having, then, ascertained the defects in our character, our next step is to impose that self-discipline which reformation requires. It may be difficult,—it doubtless will be; but the result will be worth more than its cost. The work must be commenced in strong faith, with an unyielding will; and a resolute perseverance will achieve the victory.

Have you doubts as to how you shall begin upon the new course? Phrenology teaches that every organ has one antagonistic to it; and that by exercising it, and suffering its opposite to lie dormant, the former will enlarge, and the latter shrivel for want of exercise. Take a hint from this. Have you discovered that your motives centre in self? Seek every opportunity for benefiting others, even at some personal sacrifice. Have you found yourself indulging in any passion? Cultivate a feeling of gentleness and forbearance. Put yourself in the way of meeting provocation, that you may learn, by practical experience, to resist the temptation to the evil. Have you detected a love of ease, or of inaction, or indolence? Nerve yourself to a vigorous attack upon the propensity or *habit*, if it has already become such, assured that, if continued, it will prove fatal to every noble purpose. Have you accustomed yourself to speak ill of others, or encouraged slander or gossip in your associates? Resolve to check it where you can, whether in the domestic circle, or abroad among strangers; and resolve, as a *general* rule, to be silent where you cannot commend. If others are unjust to you, be forgiving and generous to them. If the cost or inconvenience be great, the discipline will be all the better and more useful. It is by such trials that the character is to be improved and perfected. It was not sleeping on beds of down that prepared the men of '76 to endure the unutterable hardships of those days; but a long and severe training in the rigorous school of adversity and self-denial. It is the wielding of the heavy sledge that imparts vigor to the arm of the smith; while the same brawny limb, confined in a sling, would soon wither into imbecility.

Thus, then, are you to treat propensities and habits, and every sin or defect, which you find besetting you or opposing your progress towards the standard you have set up for your own attainment.

A discipline like this terminates at last in that self-conquest so important in every situation of life, and is of unspeakable advantage to him who is the guide of the young in the beginning of their career.

The importance of self-government has been proverbial from the days of Solomon. It enables its possessor to make the best use of his powers under any circumstances that may arise. It decides the contest between two individuals, in other respects equal, declaring for him "who ruleth his own spirit." Nay, it comes, in lieu of intellectual power, in the dispute, and secures the victory to him who is in other respects the weaker man. It is highly useful in every sphere; and, in that of the teacher, is in requisition every hour of every day.

The last of these elements of preparation is self-renunciation, or self-sacrifice, a state of mind the most difficult to reach, and yet the noblest of all; for it was the leading characteristic in the Great Teacher—the purest, safest model for every other teacher.

You will, very naturally, in the outset of your pedagogical course, feel jealous of your authority and dignity, and require a deference and respect from your pupils, which, if withheld or rendered tardily, you may be disposed to resent or make the occasion of severe discipline to the offender. It is fitting that this point should not be neglected; but be not hasty to act or to adopt extreme measures in such a case. Assure yourself first that disrespect was *intended*. The low state of manners at this day is notorious. In many families, of good standing in the world, it is a subject that scarcely comes within the cognizance, or, apparently, the thought of parents. The children are not trained to observe the courtesies of civilized society, but actually grow up like the untutored savage of our western wilds. If any refinement exists around them, they are somewhat affected by it; but they do and speak as others—leading individuals in the families—do. Hence, many a noble-spirited boy enters the school-room practically unconscious of the claims of the teacher to any token of respect from him, that had never been required around the hearth-stone of his own home. Consequently, his manner may be rough, his tones loud and coarse, his language ill-chosen, his carriage clownish, even on his first introduction to the teacher. Should such a one come under your observation, judge him not hastily; check him not harshly. There may lie within that repulsive exterior the best elements of our nature; and he may be wholly unconscious that he has infringed any of the laws of civility. Ascertain, therefore, the facts in the case, before you arraign him for his delinquency.

Every variety of temperament, too, may be found among your pupils. The merry, the daring, the timid, the artful; one, so overrunning with fun and frolic, that he commits many a breach of good manners quite involuntarily; another, easily excited by passion, answers rudely, under its impulse, when, in his sober judgment, he would stand self-condemned, although his pride might forbid his acknowledging his fault.

Cases will be continually occurring to test the principle of self-sacrifice within you; and well will it be for your own happiness, and better still for your pupils, if you shall have so firmly established it, as to enable you to endure from them, for a time, what you would, perhaps, be disposed, if coming from others, to consider an insult.

But do not misunderstand me. I would have your pupils behave with strict propriety; would have you enforce it as a rule. My object in these remarks is to guard against precipitate action; nay, to prepare you to carry the martyr-spirit into your government, when the welfare of the children shall require it. The mother sometimes comes to her knees before her offending child. The spirit that dictates such an act should move the teacher in cases demanding it. Cases so extreme would rarely occur in school; but when they do happen, he should be prepared to meet them in this *maternal* spirit.

When the first Napoleon had an object to gain, whether it was the carrying of a bridge, the taking of a city, or the subduing of a kingdom, difficulties did not daunt him, nor the cost in men or treasure cause him to waver in his purpose. The only question was, "how many men will it cost?" and they were detached for the service. With a similar determination, but for a far nobler end, the teacher is to ask himself, "what amount of labor, what degree of personal sacrifice, will it require of me to save this child?" The question being solved, the generous effort is, with Bonapartean promptness, to be commenced. The debasing passion is subdued; the repulsive habit reformed; the evil tendency put in check,—and the boy is redeemed!

Do you ask me if *this* is the preparation for keeping school? I answer, the course I have recommended comprises the initiatory steps. They are the most necessary ones of all; first, because they involve the highest good of a human being; and, secondly, because they come not within the scope of the examination of school committees, either at the time the teacher receives his certificate of competency to take charge of a school, or at the public examinations, when he appears before the people, to prove or disprove the accuracy of the committee's written opinion.

I am well aware of the check that this perversion of the relative

value of things among School Committees, must have a tendency to impose on the ardor of a young teacher of high aims; and how great the danger to discouragement that he must have to encounter as he anticipates the non-appreciation of his acquirements in his school of self-discipline, among those who are to be his publicly constituted legal advisers or directors. Still, I cannot consent that he should lower his standard. If he adopts the teacher's vocation as a permanent one, these things will be needful to his complete success; and he should be ambitious, for the benefit he may confer on his pupils, as well as for his own fame, to leave such marks of his training and careful instruction on their feelings, habits, and principles, as will show to the good and wise that he measured his duty in the school-room by a standard more lofty, more grand, than that which is satisfied with a moderate acquaintance with grammar, geography, and arithmetic. These in their order. I would not derogate an iota from their true value; but I would have, without any compromise whatever, those things take the first place, on which the character, integrity, moral worth, and that happiness which springs from pure fountains, and which is alone worth striving for, depend.

The teacher who conscientiously believes this, and has made a faithful effort to fit himself to carry out the views presented in this letter, is worthy to mould the rising race,—to fit the embryo men to become voters under a free government, to become legislators capable of making wise laws, and upright magistrates to execute them.

Such teachers the republic emphatically needs. Such must be had, if we would perpetuate the glorious institutions of our Heaven-favored country. Prosperity in commerce, in wealth, in power, in fame, in population, is of little value, if there be not a foundation in something more substantial—more enduring; if, in short, public and private virtue be not the grand basis—"the stability of our land."

The foundation of all practical education must be in the department of morals; and this should be insisted on by all supervisors of schools throughout the land. Teachers should be examined in this as "the principal thing;" and, if found deficient, whatever their attainments in science, should be rejected. It is full time that some practical use should be made of the doctrine assented to by all, that the moral and social nature should be educated; and this can be best secured by engaging the services of persons who have made it a matter of particular attention.

ERRATA.—In the Introductory Letter, p. 358, ninth line from the top, "indissolubly" for "indissolubly"; next paragraph, "tyrant's" for "tyrant."

XII. MENTAL EDUCATION OF WOMAN.

BY CATHARINE MCKEEN, MOUNT HOLYOKE SEMINARY.

BEAUTIFUL and exquisite things have been spoken for woman's ear; bouquets of flowery adulation lie pressed between crimson and gilded lids, on every parlor table. True and Christian sentiments have also been amassed upon this honored theme. Have not all the combinations of words, and varieties of thought, on the subject of Female Education, been quite exhausted? Nay, *truths*, permanent and changeless, afford a limitless variety of views to different minds, as does the light from the same sun to different eyes; and human *faces* are not as distinctive as are the *souls* which give them expression. But the useful of *to-day*, may have no need to differ from the useful of *yesterday*; the world is ever passing through a series of repetitions; the same sun that shone upon the glistening tents of Abraham, the same stars that watched above the shepherds of Bethlehem, have ever since been moving through their daily courses. Generation after generation passes on and off the stage of life, through a common route of wants and experiences. There must be a constantly renewed application of motive and nourishment to the physical and psychical man. The mind that has once imbibed truth or incitement, may require it none the less again, neither will it feed alone on dried or preserved fruits, but craves the juiciness and freshness of the newly plucked, even though but scarcely ripe. It is the latest style, the just imported, the *to-days'* paper that are most eagerly called for, even though the old were better, or the same. The world is begirdled with labels of *New*, which reappearing in its revolution, dupe the restless expectant. Thus the *old renewed*, is ever attracting the listless attention. Valuable and comprehensive as are the teachings of the dead, it cannot be doubted that the living multitudes are chiefly swayed by their living associates, and are influenced more by the repeated than the remembered truths. Then whoso has a thought to utter, is not to suppress it, because the like has been spoken before. It is thought on the *wing*, as it were, that attract the observer's eye, and it is the earnestness of the outsending spirit that gives it force, it is the arrow shot at the *mark* that does execution, not the random throws, or the residue in the quiver; and so a word that

comes with the impulse of strong desire, and urgent feeling to a certain aim, accomplishes more than many generalities or reserved powers. Then let the earnest conviction of the importance of the subject and of its high claims to repeated consideration, be a sufficient apology for the appearance of another treatise on the object and means of Woman's Mental Education. There is manifestly a continuous progress in public opinion, in regard to the propriety of affording to woman, educational opportunities, but these increasing efforts lack a fixed aim; these enlarging views want system. Both parents and their daughters, in determining the kind and degree of intellectual discipline desirable for the young lady, are controlled more generally by custom than principle. Without a common and distinct object there can be among educators of youth, no unity of plan or appropriateness of means. What result might be expected from the agriculturist who should sow and plant at hap-hazard, with the desire of cultivating the earth, but with no specific harvest in view, or knowledge of the proper means for obtaining one; or from a mechanist who should take into his hands a set of tools, and proceed to use them, without deciding upon any particular piece of furniture to be manufactured? Successful effort must have its appropriate *object*, and especially is this true in the sphere of intellectual action. It were acknowledged folly to experiment blindly with the *mortal* life, or make fashion the only umpire on the treatment of the *body*, but madness it is to trifle with the *immortal* part. In all the pursuits of this hurrying world, is there another object so momentous as the direction of human spirits? Seriously, is it so? Then let us give earnest heed, and look carefully here, for if we err in the *foundation truth*, vain is the superstructure. We conceive the ultimate object in the education of a rational being, to be wholly independent of distinction of *sex*, or any occupation or circumstances in life: all these must essentially modify the means, but the end is invariable, fixed to the throne of God. But let us look back to the beginning of being, before we trace its course. In the beginning God created the Heavens and the earth. This great earth, whose summits surpass our reach, whose depths underlie our soundings; which is wonderful above finite comprehension, though *good* in the sight of its Author, was not in His image. It came from the Creative hand, bearing the impress of that spiritual type to which its manifestations correspond; it was the material symbol or index to the attributes of Deity; by displays of power and skill, pointing to Omnipotence, Omniscience; giving by form and color, *emblems* of ideal beauty, and by harmonious sounds, echoes from the perfect harmony of God. All was characteristic of

its Author, yet not in His image; as the book resembles not its writer, or the temple its builder; but *man* was born of God, not as a symbol, but a living spirit; not merely to display the wisdom of the *Creator*, but to *be wise*; not as a *work*, but a *worker*; not simply the *expression* of thought, but a *thinker*; not as the *effect* of moral perfection, but with capability of *being* morally perfect. Man was in the *image* of God, and the living spirit breathed from the divine breath, was life, with no power of ceasing to be. All the faculties of the human soul were reflected from the attributes of Deity, but these human tastes and faculties, could find their true objects and vital nourishment, only in that which is suited to their nature, the one source; and as the created, the finite, might not comprehend the Self-existent, the Infinite, types and symbols of the spiritual, were granted in *matter*, mysteries inviting solution, the material for the exercise of the beginning powers; and as a medium of communication between mind and the natural world, was formed the human *body*. Thus the spirit through all its channels was to be led to its source; finding no rest, no ultimate object save in the perfect Whole; and the mind advancing on *any track of truth*, will find it leading to the endless Deity. This is not a vain speculation, an outside theory which we have been contemplating, but the foundation of all practical rules, the centre from which emanates light upon the whole circle of human relations. Are not these truths great and glorious? yet may they not be reflected in a dew-drop as it were, in the most simple maxims, wherein a way-faring man need not err?

Since God is the Author and true aim of every faculty of our being, there can be no state or act of that being disconnected with obligation to Him; and as by the Laws of our Constitution, every faculty is strengthened by proper exercise, and the object of its exercise is infinite, it can never have glorified God to its fullest capacity. There is no *limit*, for the seeming limit of the present, is constantly receding to find the boundary of the boundless eternity. Have we come in our search to a foundation truth? Then even at the risk of tediousness let us linger and look at it again, for every pillar in this little fabric of thought, must rest upon it. We have not considered as the *basis*, what should be the object in the education of *woman*, in distinction from man; of this or that class in society; of the American, the Asiatic, or the African; but of a *human soul*. And now we will notice the application of these principles, to a few divisions of our subject, for it spreads into so many branches, that we can by no means follow out each to its ultimate buds of thought, or gather all the fruit from the larger limbs.

First, why and to what extent should woman be mentally educated? The Lord is a God of knowledge. His understanding is infinite. He knows Himself and all the works of His hands. Nothing which exists in spirit or matter, nothing that space contains or duration bounds, can be unknown to the Infinite One. This attribute in the Maker gave to His image the corresponding desire and capability of knowing, and placed mysteries all about him, problems inviting solution;—veins of connection lying through every department of creation, alluring the mind to follow their rich lines onward, till the mine is found which gave them rise. But the incitements to thought were by no means all in the outer world. The soul is a mystery to itself, and the body to which it is wedded is another *unknown*. the past and future; what depth untried! And more than all, bounding all height, depth, length and breadth, is the mystery of Godliness. Thus was inquiring thought to be called into action; and by nature, Scripture, and inward teaching, to be directed through every path of truth, up to the Infinite Mind. Where then is the limit of progress? When shall the intellect say, "it is enough?" When shall it stay in its course satisfied with the glory it has given to God, in the expansion of the powers He created for immortality? When shall it be satiated with draughts from the everlasting fountain of truth? Is it enough that a woman may provide for the wants of the body, and care for that which perisheth with the using? Enough that she maintain a fashionable position in society, and learn her pretty arts of transient amusement? Away with such narrow bounds for one a little lower than the angels; meet were such reasoning for the worms that crawl in dust. So long as woman claims a "living spirit," no mortal has a right to fix a limit to her intellectual progress, nor may she consider her education *finished*, until she receives a diploma from the great Teacher to whom she is responsible. We might argue the importance of woman's mental cultivation from its relation to her happiness and usefulness, its powerful bearing upon all the interests of mankind, but rather would we search the matter down to its fundamental basis, and overreach inferior aims for the ultimate. The deficiency of means for female education and the lowness of its standard have resulted from an error here. The quantity of mental cultivation has been weighed out in the balance of worldly prudence.

Convenience, Custom, Taste, have been allowed to decide what was to be done with the *mind*, and to "bring it up" at their pleasure. Religion and rational philosophy have been thrust aside as intrusive advisers. This, we apprehend is the fatal mistake, and we would have the truth fully and clearly presented to every understand-

ing, that the human soul in *intellect* as well as *affections* is to be educated for *God*, and in view of eternity.

The degree of woman's cultivation ought then to be measured only by the *extent of her capabilities*. It is often asserted that learning and strength of mind render her homely duties distasteful, and in order that woman may keep the place, and do the work for which she was intended, she must have her inner eyes put out, lest she discover her position. A blind and lame argument truly! There is no clashing of purposes with the clear seeing One who created woman, and appointed her earthly sphere. By Him was no work assigned to any member of his great family which must degrade the worker, and thwart his highest good. It is only by the light of religion that we discover the true dignity and influence of every needful service. Man has made artificial wants, and laid heavy burdens upon the ministers of his pleasure; but whatever is really conducive to the health, happiness and good of the family circle, is worthy of the care and effort of an *angel* even. How can a well balanced judgment, clear perception, correct taste and practical imagination, make one less competent to perform the duties of a seamstress, nursery maid, or cook? Let the mind be sufficiently expanded to see the relations of all life's duties, as they lie in His mind whose thoughts are not as our thoughts, and it will put nobility on the office of the hands and the feet, instead of saying, "I have no need of you."

The muscles do not move without the mind's impulses, nor these without the heart: it is the inward state which either honors or dishonors the labor and the laborer. The stigma that has fallen upon literary ladies, has arisen in part from a one-sided, imperfect education. Often when the mind has been opened to the attractions of Science and Esthetics, it has yielded to the delightful impulse, and gone forth to its partial gleanings, forgetting that all the wants of human nature could not thus be satisfied. Such persons have taken false and limited views of the object of life. They have contemned and thrown into disrepute, the humble offices of feeding and clothing the body, of dealing with every day realities. Alas! they have forgotten that God thought it not beneath His honor, not only to order *bodies* which might be fitting receptacles for His *souls*, but that He Himself entered into all the minutiae of tissue and formation. He not only purposed that the earth should be clad in becoming vesture, but Himself designed the pattern, and determined the shade of the leaf for every tree or plant in the universe. Take up a shell and trace the beautifully winding lines, the polished curves and exquisitely blending tints;—take another and another. Oh the endless

variety of form and color! Multiply these by the species of plants and animals. We have entered upon an infinite illustration, and must retrace our steps to the beginning, for there is no end. Is it possible that a Great intellect could have been employed about things too small for the human eye even to see,—that it could have provided what every living thing should eat, and where it should live? Shameful and profane is it for mortal man or woman to despise what a *God* has honored. It is a mistaken and pernicious opinion that true education of the whole being can render woman *less* fit for any duty whatever that may devolve upon her. It is true, she will not be content to expend all her time and energies on the things which perish with the using; but she will strive to modify the foolish customs of society; to bring the exorbitant demands of fashion within the realm of reason, and to give to all the claims upon her, their due proportion of regard.

A miserly life of mere self-improvement is a degraded aim; and, enlightened benevolence will find its highest joy in communicating a healthful influence to all within its reach. It is in the orbit of *home* that the cultivated intellect must exert its chief power. There it must fix the standard of elevated thought and pursuit; and, with a well-balanced judgment and refined taste, quietly reign through every department. There is no danger here of disagreeable pedantry, of officious display of learning; for, what can make one more lowly in self-esteem than to get far enough out from shore to see the boundlessness of the ocean of truth, than to ascend high enough to take a view of the immensity of the fields of knowledge? It is objected that the business of life is with most ladies not of a literary character, and they cannot afford *time* to thought and study; therefore, their early acquisitions, however extensive, are useless. No true mental discipline can possibly be lost; and, it is especially important to woman that by her early training the love of knowledge and the habit of regulated thought may be so firmly rooted as to insure a luxurious growth, despite all obstacles. The mind that has felt the bewildering joy of the "race courses and gymnastics of the intellect,"—that has once tasted the sweet rewards which exploring thought brings home,—that has seen by the light of religion its relations to God and man,—will be *progressive*, whatever its occupation. The human spirit, the material world, the providences and perfections of Deity, are volumes that lie open to the most busy and most destitute. It is sad to see the mass of women wholly engrossed by things of inferior worth, narrowing down the mind to the degrading, laborious service of fashion.

There is opportunity for noble thought and action in every God-designed sphere of life. The great work of educating devolves chiefly upon woman; and, what qualifications are too high for this. We would that some truth-teller might ring in the ears of the community, so that it should vibrate beyond the auditory nerve, upon the understanding, *the truth*, that national character is dependent on the individuals which form it; and the individuals receive their style of being mainly from their mothers,—a class intrusted with the greatest and most momentous work ever committed to mortals. Yet, how many a mother can instruct her own children in even the elements of useful learning? Can, when her child at eventide sits in her lap, watching the round sun going down with his light, or the bright sparks that twinkle out in the broad sky, or the fair moon, gliding so silently among the light clouds, then fix the beginnings of thought, and gratify inquiry, by true stories of the greater and lesser lights? And, when that child goes forth to explore its little range of world, hushes at the winds' voices, plays with the soft, lifesome brook, plucks the bright flowers and folds them lovingly in his frock, marvels timidly at the horned beasts of the field, and springs to catch the singing bird that balances high on the leaf-twig; who can then present to his eager mind the truth which it craves, and foster with nicest care the choice sensibilities and emotions? And, as the child advances, can explain to him more and more the exhaustless *picture book of Nature*, exciting to a study which seems but play, in gathering kindred stones, and making family parties with the flowers, and visiting the bird and insect homes, to see their summer and winter houses, and what they do for a living? Is the mind often thus led to discover for itself the existence of *systems* in Nature, of variety bounded by uniformity, so that books shall afterwards be but craved aids in its farther researches? Are the unfolding faculties carefully studied, so that the training with delicate but steady hand may adjust their development in harmonious proportions? Is the mutual dependence of the soul and body intelligently regarded, so that neither shall be sacrificed to the other, but both be enabled to live together in accordant and helpful partnership? How many, skilled in the science of mind, and taught of God in His holy religion, are fitted to cultivate the conscience, plant the principles of right action, and guard against the approaches of evil influence? Who can believe that the educator of others has herself no need to be educated; and, that there is nothing in the office adapted to call forth and stimulate the energies of the mind? Most of the schools of our country are under the care of female teachers, especially those for this sex. It concerns us, therefore, to consider what the *school* is

designed to effect, what are the leading defects of our ladies' schools, and how they may be remedied. We do not expect the teacher, or any limited period of time, to accomplish the whole work of education; that must go on through the soul's existence. But, the discipline of early years, must arouse the whole mind into healthful, harmonious action, open for it the great departments of knowledge in nature and mind, and develop enough of their system and attractions to awaken mental curiosity, and give it direction. Right habits of thought are also to be formed and confirmed, for the bud of character is being moulded which has only to unfold as it matures. The course of study and instruction in our schools should, therefore, be wisely fitted to secure this great end. But, have they generally been so?

It is evident that facilities are needed by ladies for more extended progress in the various branches of study. How many gentlemen would be willing to exchange schools with their sisters? Would give up to them the lectures, libraries, and apparatus of Cambridge, Yale, and kindred seats, and take, in return, the best advantages we have to offer? We would not intimate that precisely the *same* course is desirable for man and woman, or that one should assert a *right* to every privilege of the other. We have no occasion to discuss the question whether ladies require or are capable of the same degree of intellectual cultivation as the other sex, this is not to the purpose; we have already premised that every soul is accountable to the Creator for the use of its own powers, whatever they are, and it is indisputable that each *can* do what he *can*. What we desire, then, is the best instruction for us that can be obtained; libraries, too, such as would be of the highest advantage; also, the aids to scientific study, Astronomical, Chemical, Mineralogical, &c. Much, we gratefully acknowledge, is being done to forward the object we are pleading: schools are improving their character, and increasing their advantages; still, we have not reached our standard. No ladies' school in New England embraces as extended a course of study, or is furnished with as many facilities, as are many of its colleges and universities. Moreover, most of our richest opportunities are held out of poverty's reach, and not only is tuition disproportionately high, but the wages of those ladies who, by teaching, or other labor, would defray this expense, are disproportionately low. The daughters of the land may well cry, "give us money, that we may buy food for the mind." Among all the donations and bequests of the benevolent, how small a proportion is appropriated to the educational aid of woman. The various religious societies, the asylums and humane institutions, each have now and then a portion. It is *well*; we would not take from these. We read of

liberal donations to this college and that university, nor ye would we covet; well pleased to see others enjoying their rich provision, we make our humble courtesy for the crumbs; but, now comes a large bequest from a *lady*. Surely, she will remember her people; but, no, every dollar goes over their heads to some far-away place, or to an already endowed professorship. Strange that the wise and benevolent have not long ago perceived that the surest way to elevate *mankind* is to give his mind a higher *source*, its principles and faculties a right foundation and direction in their formative state, and to incite it in its subsequent course, by sympathy and exalted companionship. But, though the gold is locked up never so tightly, and the philanthropist fails to see this worthy object of regard, still the earth is the Lord's, and the fullness thereof, and He will use it at His pleasure.

Secondly: If the means of instruction are to be extended, of course girls must remain longer at school; and, with the present system, there is frequently too much of hurrying. Many seem to regard, not the *study itself*, but the *terminus* as the *good*. It is their great aim to get *through* the course with all possible dispatch; no matter whether it embraces much or little, it is the diploma at the end towards which they are eagerly pressing. The nervous energies may be overtaxed by constant tension, and a restless goading may destroy the healthful buoyancy of youth; the mind may be enfeebled by cramming, and lose the power of digestion, no matter; this is the necessary wear and tear of the educational process. Much as we feel the need of instruction in the higher branches, this thoughtless haste in disposing of the means already enjoyed is a far greater evil. The parents and friends of the young ladies are frequently more at fault than themselves: they may, with difficulty, afford the pecuniary means to keep them long at school, and so are anxious to get much in little, or, with Yankee shrewdness, they look upon education as a thing to be obtained like gold,—the faster, the better. We would by no means speak severely of those ill-judging parents; for, their error springs from a lack of information as to the real good of the objects of their loving solicitude, and the complacency with which they remark that their daughter has graduated at a distinguished seminary, is often blind to the fact that that daughter would be far more respected by the truly educated, had she carefully *thought* her way through one third of its course. It is, in truth, oftener disgraceful than honorable to finish one's studies at an early age. It may not be desirable for a young lady to continue uninterrupted study for three or four years, especially in a boarding-school excluded from the ordinary connection with society, and governed by the rules of the little com-

monwealth; rather than testing her capabilities of governing herself in all the varying circumstances of life. We would, for the present propose, that to our high schools, should be added opportunities for one or two years of advanced study as a separate department which would be chiefly valued by those who had been out in the world a little, trying their powers, and been made to feel the need of a refurnishing for their work. Undue rapidity and superficiality are cotemporary. 3. Therefore, in this connection, we would speak of the importance of more thoroughness in study; not more acquaintance with the text-books so much, as more thought on the topics suggested by the books.

Let teachers and pupils remember that the first great lesson is, *How to study*, how to use the mysterious faculties within. As the mother delights to teach her child how to apply his soft, flexible fingers to holding his little cup, and to give him the joyful discovery of what his feet are good for, as he first tries them on the floor, so let the teacher cause the student to see and feel his own mental faculties, and try their strength till he becomes independent of the leading hand, and can go alone. Instruction has too often tended to cultivate chiefly the memory, instead of inciting to research, and leading the mind up, now and then, from the close, narrow view, to prospect heights, from which the different parts of the subject may be seen in their true proportions, uniting in a whole. We are tempted to dwell long on this topic, but must hasten to allude briefly to the class of studies claiming attention.

Probably the course of study generally adopted in our ladies' schools is well selected, and we will mention only those branches which are commonly neglected. Perhaps the natural sciences ought to take a more prominent place than they have usually occupied. If we view the natural world as a medium between us and the Creator, it becomes a matter of importance that what He has designed to communicate should be carefully heeded. The world of nature is always open to observation, so that woman, though gathering her vegetables for dinner, or filling the vases for her parlor, whether observing the operation of chemical or philosophical laws in her little world of sight and hearing, or scanning the shining firmament as, at the hush of evening, she stands at her window, or strolls into the summer garden, whether in her wild-wood mountain rambles, or more extended travels for sight-seeing, is ever surrounded with mental stimulus and instruction, and she who has the keys to the different departments of this world-museum may daily gather a new treasure. But, God is to be studied still more in his higher work, the human mind. History and other

departments of literature, open to us their galleries for observation and instruction. Let History be studied philosophically; as we trace back the stream of events, let us pause to see what makes the fall here, the winding there, this rapid, or that stagnation. History is the tissue into which all other studies are woven,—the string for the necklace of literary pearls. But, in this department, we would include the near as well as the remote,—the succession of events left behind us by every day's progress in time. Let us not linger continually among the memorials of the dead Past: our hearts should beat in sympathy with the living Present. The great disparity between the *general information* of gentlemen and ladies, even among the lower classes, is doubtless owing to the difference in their newspaper reading. The school girl may be attracted by the worthless story, but is too often blind and deaf to all that is acting on the public stage. Political, scientific, or religious reports, from abroad or at home, are laid upon the table *sine die*: all these things are to be deferred till school days give place to leisure; but, alas, that prospective leisure is often still farther removed, and, if it is attained, the habit and taste for gleaning from the newly-reaped fields of Time, are wanting. Whatever *habit* is desirable in the summer or autumn of life, must be sowed in the spring.

The study of belles lettres, too, should share in every school course. Who have been the eminent writers in our own or other languages? What have they written, and wherein lay their power? What were the results of their intellectual work, and by what methods or styles did they reveal these results? What is the secret of the charm we feel, the control we confess? How have different minds regarded the same subject, each from its own stand point, and how would the reader regard it? Thus, the study of thought and the various ways of conveying it from one body-prisoned spirit to another, is the object we contemplate; and, the study of foreign languages has little value except as it lends assistance here. Of course, only a small fraction of the world's library would be comprised within school-study, but we repeat that a beginning must be made early of all right habits of mind. Ought not a good compendium of English literature to be introduced as a part of the course in all our ladies' schools? This properly studied, would be one of the most efficient means for cultivating in the student a nice literary taste and the ability for expressing her own thoughts; but, we would unite with reading, writing and conversation. Not that we would have ladies share in public oratory or ostentatious debate,—let them be struck dumb rather than use thus their powers of speech; but, thought is seldom clear and well-

defined when there is no attempt to mark it off by words, nor ready at command, unless the mind is trained to quickness; then, again, of what use to others is our inner self, except as it appears to them? If ladies were disciplined in logical reasoning, in literary taste, and capable of communicating their own thoughts with ease, clearness, and elegant propriety, how immeasurably would their means of radiating light be increased. We have alluded thus cursorily to a few branches which receive less than their proportion of regard; but, of the whole spirit and manner of the teacher, of all that quickening, refining, elevating influence, which should surround and pervade the pupil's mind, the length of this article forbids us to speak, as also of the direct effect of *religious* truth and experience upon the intellect. Finally, ladies, we must *ourselves* be made to see the object of our existence, and feel our own *wants*. We have been too stupid in our ignorance, and our brothers have been too well satisfied to let us take our own way; but, when we unitedly and strongly present our petitions for the means of a higher education, they will gladly aid us with money and mind, and find, hereafter, in return, a *help* more *meet*. With high Christian purpose, let us strive to bring ourselves and our sex to that type of womanhood of which the Creator may say, "It is good."

XIII. PACKER COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE FOR GIRLS.

BROOKLYN, N. Y.

In the year 1844, a number of citizens of Brooklyn, New York, made a successful effort to found, upon a solid and permanent basis, an institution of high order, for the education of girls. The following extracts, from the articles of association, will sufficiently indicate the objects and plan of its formation.

1. The interest of this Institution shall be vested in the hands of a Board of Trustees, consisting of fifteen members, to be chosen out of the number of stockholders.

2. These Trustees shall be divided into three classes, one of which shall be chosen every year; so that each shall hold his place for three years.

3. The Trustees shall choose their own officers, and make their own by-laws, and should any vacancy occur, they may supply the same, until the next ensuing annual election.

4. It shall be the duty of the Trustees to submit to the stockholders, at the time of each annual election, a report of the state of the Institution and its finances, with an inventory of its property.

The Association was incorporated in 1845, and in the same year A. Crittenden, A. M., who had been for twenty years the efficient and successful Principal of the Albany Female Academy, assumed its charge. Two substantial brick buildings were erected—the main one, in which were all the school apartments, was about 75 feet by 100 feet and four stories high: the other, devoted to the accommodation of pupils from abroad, being about fifty feet square and of a similar height. These were completed and formally dedicated on the 4th day of May, 1846.

In relation to the situation and objects of the Institution, Rev Dr. Sprague, D. D., of Albany, who delivered an address on this occasion, made use of the following language:—

If we were ignorant of the purpose for which this edifice has been erected, and were left to conjecture it from the beauty of its situation, the elegance of its structure, or the extent and variety of its accommodations, we should certainly conclude that it *ought* to be some purpose of great moment; for it would seem incongruous that both nature and art should thus be laid under contribution in honor of anything that does not deserve to be honored. Nor should we have reason to be disappointed, when the secret came out that this building is to be devoted exclusively to the interests of education. No, there is nothing here, within or around—nothing in these extensive apartments or these convenient arrangements—nothing in the bright heavens arching this eminence—nothing in the surrounding ocean, now whitened with sails and teeming with life, and now receiving into its bosom the glorious sun—nothing in this spot so quiet that the weary spirit might well come hither to rest and breathe, while yet it is almost embosomed in one of the largest cities upon earth—I say there is nothing in all this but what is in admirable harmony with the purpose for which this building has been erected. May the commanding eminence which it occupies, lifting it towards the fountains of natural light, prove emblematical of its yet loftier intellectual and moral position, elevating it into communion with the fountain of all spiritual light and blessing!

To what extent these anticipations have been realized will appear from the following extracts. In their second annual report to the stockholders, the Trustees say,

The enterprise can no longer be considered an experiment. The Academy, it is believed, is now firmly established; and the Trustees would congratulate the stockholders on the decided evidence of usefulness which the Institution has already furnished, and the promise which it gives of future and permanent benefit to our community.

We have now an Academy which will compare most favorably with any other Institution of a similar kind in the country. With an income sufficient to meet all its ordinary expenditures, and to pay off its debt within a reasonable period—with a corps of efficient and experienced Teachers, possessing high qualifications for their vocation—with ample accommodations of the best character, and every facility for furnishing an education of the highest order,—nothing is wanting to ensure the complete and permanent success of the Brooklyn Female Academy, but the continued good opinion and support of a liberal and enlightened community.

Great anxiety was felt by the Trustees, that unavoidable embarrassments would cause a long delay before the pupils and teachers could be put into right positions, so that the pupils could receive that quiet and orderly instruction, which the patrons of the Institution, notwithstanding all these impediments, would naturally expect.

But we have the unalloyed satisfaction of knowing that the work was done, and in good time; the most gratifying results have been achieved; a mild, efficient, and paternal government has been established and uniformly maintained.

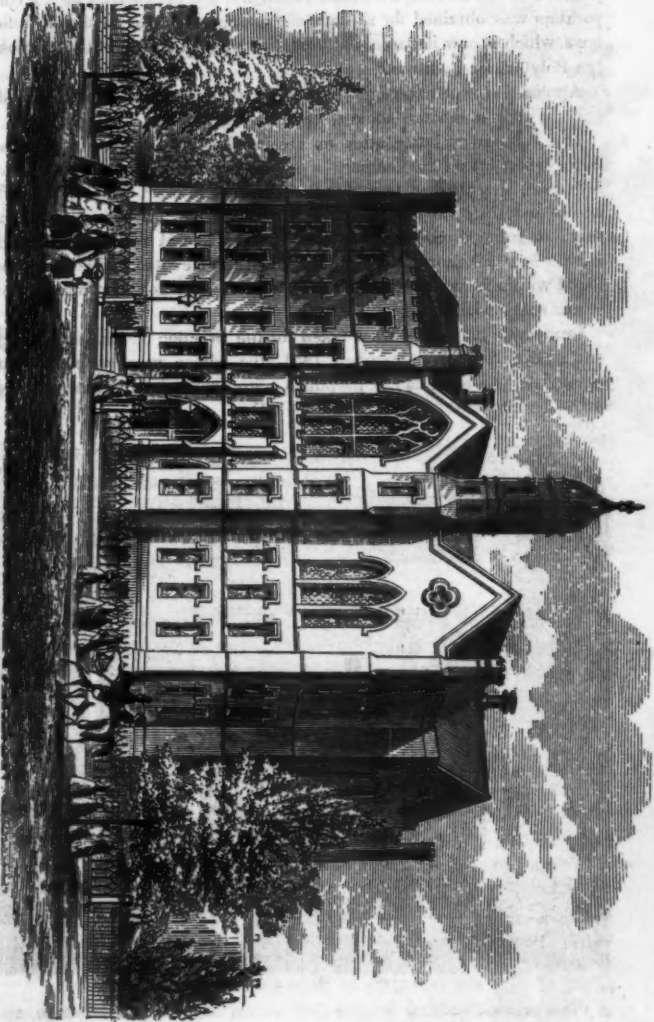
The reputation of the Academy for good government, ample means, and thorough instruction, has been continually growing up, silently but surely gaining the confidence of the community, till its good name is known, not only throughout our land, but in distant countries.

In proof of this statement, we are able to enumerate among the 1520 pupils who have sought the advantages of an education here, the representatives of 19 different States of our Union, the Canadas, St. Thomas, Trinidad, Cuba, Bermuda, the Sandwich Islands, and England.

The foregoing extracts sufficiently indicate the objects, progress, and success of this Institute, for the first five years. It continued to increase in favor until 1853, when its revenue, from tuition alone, amounted to \$20,000 per annum, and its number of pupils to six hundred, in daily attendance. On the first morning of that year, the larger building with all its contents, including the large and well selected library, scientific apparatus and cabinets, was entirely destroyed by fire. But a calamity so sudden and disastrous even as this, did not interrupt the operations of the school for a single hour. Through the energy and promptness of the Principal, it was at once established in the neighboring rooms of the Brooklyn Institute, the use of which was tendered while the flames were yet raging.

Within three days after this disaster, Mrs. Harriet L. Packer, addressed a note to the Trustees of the Brooklyn Female Academy, in which she stated that her late husband, William S. Packer, had entertained the purpose of "devoting a sum toward the establishment of an Institution for the education of Youth. It was her desire, as his representative, to carry out his wishes." The recent destruction of the building of the Female Academy, by fire, offered her an opportunity which she was glad to embrace. "What I contemplate in this," she writes, "is to apply \$65,000 of Mr. Packer's property, to the erection of an Institution for the education of my own sex in the higher branches of Literature, in lieu of that now known as the Brooklyn Female Academy."

PACKER COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.



In answer to this proposition the Trustees resolved to dissolve the corporation of the Brooklyn Female Academy, and the consent of the corporators was obtained for the transfer of their interest to a school for boys, which is now in successful operation, under the title of the "Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute."

Application was made and granted for the incorporation of an Academy for girls, under the name of the PACKER COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.

In a subsequent letter, after expressing her heartfelt thanks for the honor bestowed on the memory of her husband in giving the Institution his name, Mrs. Packer, to enable the Trustees to erect a building "with accommodations sufficiently ample to provide for the realization of our most sanguine hopes," "and in a style and general appearance which should be a token or pledge of the refined and elevated influences to be found within its walls," adds \$20,000 to her former donation, making the whole sum \$85,000.

Immediate measures were taken for the erection of such a building, and on the first of September, 1854, the edifice was completed and opened for the reception of its pupils, with appropriate ceremonies, and an address by Rev. Francis Vinton, D. D.



Fig. 4. ENTRANCE HALL.

The present building is more than a third larger than the former, and with its grounds and boarding establishment attached, its cost is estimated at \$150,000. It contains a chapel, of the Gothic style, which will seat one thousand persons, where the pupils assemble daily for religious exercises, and weekly for the reading of composition.



Fig. 2. GARDEN FRONT.



Fig. 3. INTERIOR OF CHAPEL.

Fig. 5. BASEMENT.

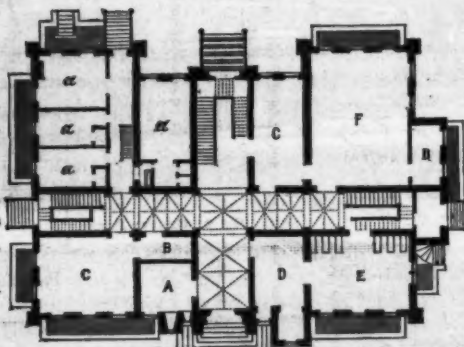
- a. a. a. a. Residence for a Professor.
 b. b. Gymnasium.
 c. c. c. Janitor's apartment.
 e. e. e. Store-rooms and Work-shop.
 d. Coal vault.



BASEMENT

Fig. 6. FIRST FLOOR.

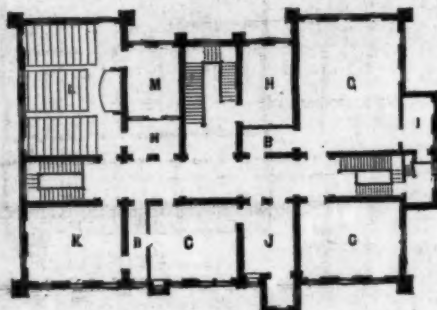
- a. a. a. a. Residence for a Professor.
 A. Office.
 B. B. Wardrobes.
 C. C. School-rooms.
 D. Reception room.
 E. Library.
 F. Academic Department.



FIRST FLOOR

Fig. 7. SECOND FLOOR.

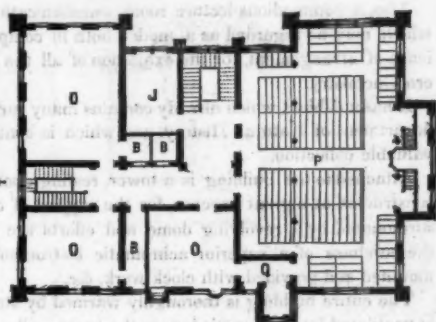
- C. C. School-rooms.
 B. B. Wardrobes.
 G. Collegiate Department.
 H. Composition Department.
 I. Collegiate Library.
 J. Recitation room.
 K. Cabinet of Natural History.
 L. Lecture room.
 M. Laboratory.
 N. Apparatus room.



SECOND FLOOR

Fig. 8. THIRD FLOOR.

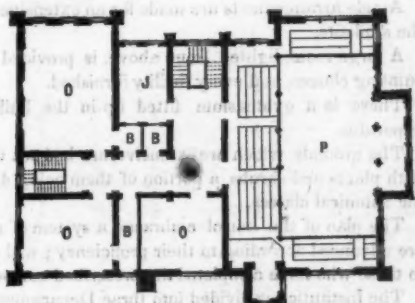
- B. B. B. Wardrobes.
J. Recitation room.
O. O. O. Academic Department.
P. Chapel.
Q. Vestry.



THIRD FLOOR

Fig. 9. FOURTH FLOOR.

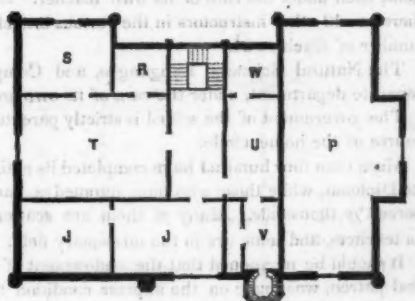
- J. Recitation room.
B. B. B. Wardrobe.
O. O. O. Academic Departments.
P. Chapel.



FOURTH FLOOR

Fig. 10. FIFTH FLOOR.

- J. J. Recitation rooms.
P. Chapel.
R. Water Tank.
S. Room for Models.
T. Drawing and Painting room.
U. Astronomical Apparatus.
V. Hall to Observatory.
W. Store room.



FIFTH FLOOR

Also, a commodious lecture room communicating with a laboratory, which may be regarded as a model, both in completeness and convenience of arrangement, for the exhibition of all the phenomena of modern Chemistry.

It has a cabinet which already contains many rare specimens in every department of Natural History, and which is continually adding to its valuable collection.

Attached to the building is a tower, resting upon a deep foundation, constructed at a great expense, for the support of a telescope. This is surmounted by a revolving dome, and efforts are now being made for the purchase of a superior achromatic instrument, to be equatorially mounted and provided with clock work, &c.

The entire building is thoroughly warmed by steam, and every room is ventilated by flues carried up in the inner walls.

The Institution has in its possession the largest planetarium in the country, and other astronomical apparatus.

Ample arrangements are made for an extensive library for the use of the students.

A large room, lighted from above, is provided for the drawing and painting classes, and every facility furnished.

There is a gymnasium fitted up in the building, with the usual apparatus.

The grounds, which are extensive, are laid out with care, and adorned with plants and shrubs, a portion of them being designed for the use of the botanical classes.

The plan of the school embraces a system of study in which pupils are advanced according to their proficiency; and diplomas are awarded to those who have completed the prescribed course.

The Institution is divided into three Departments, termed the preparatory, academic, and collegiate, which are again divided into 12 sections, each under the care of its own teacher. Besides these teachers, there are 12 other instructors in the various branches, making the whole number of teachers 24.

The Natural Sciences, Languages, and Composition, form each a separate department, under the care of its own professor.

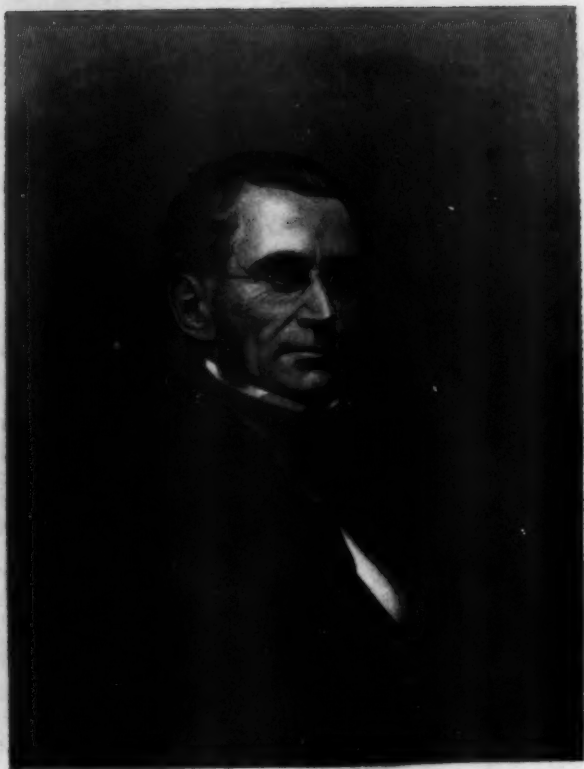
The government of the school is strictly parental. It is like the intercourse of the home circle.

More than four hundred have completed its entire course and received its Diploma, while those who have pursued a partial course are numbered by thousands. Many of them are scattered over our country as teachers, and some are in the missionary field.

It should be mentioned that the endowment of this school, by its liberal patron, was made on the express condition that all profits arising therefrom should be faithfully applied to its further improvement, and for enlarging and increasing its facilities for instruction.

An Institution established on such a broad and firm basis, promises, for the future, the largest and most permanent usefulness.

The first of these is the fact that the United States is a young nation, and its history is therefore a history of growth and development. The second is the fact that the United States is a large nation, and its history is therefore a history of expansion and conquest. The third is the fact that the United States is a diverse nation, and its history is therefore a history of conflict and compromise. The fourth is the fact that the United States is a nation of immigrants, and its history is therefore a history of assimilation and adaptation. The fifth is the fact that the United States is a nation of pioneers, and its history is therefore a history of exploration and discovery. The sixth is the fact that the United States is a nation of farmers, and its history is therefore a history of agriculture and industry. The seventh is the fact that the United States is a nation of workers, and its history is therefore a history of labor and reform. The eighth is the fact that the United States is a nation of citizens, and its history is therefore a history of rights and responsibilities. The ninth is the fact that the United States is a nation of leaders, and its history is therefore a history of vision and action. The tenth is the fact that the United States is a nation of people, and its history is therefore a history of hope and dreams.



Chas. Brooks.

Printed by Wilson & Daniels.



XIV. A CHAPTER* IN THE HISTORY OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

IN NEW ENGLAND.

IN the autumn of 1834, Rev. Charles Brooks, pastor of a church in Hingham, commenced his labors in behalf of common schools, and particularly of the establishment of a state system of supervision, and of a Normal School. Mr. Brooks had become interested in these features of a system of public education during a visit to Europe, and from an opportunity of becoming well acquainted with the details of the Prussian system, in conversation with Dr. Julius, who was his companion across the Atlantic, during his voyage home, when the latter gentleman was on his visit to this country on a commission from the Government of Prussia, to examine into our system of prison discipline. As will be seen hereafter, that visit was twice blessed—it helped, by disseminating a knowledge of our improvements in prisons, and our amelioration of the criminal code, to advance the cause of humanity in Europe, and make known among our statesmen and educators the progress which had been made in Germany in the means and agencies of popular education. Mr. Brooks' first public effort was on the 3d of December, 1835, in a thanksgiving address to his people, in which he gave a sketch of the Prussian system of education, and proposed the holding a series of conventions of the friends of common schools to agitate the subject of establishing a Normal School in the old colony. The first of these conventions was held on the 7th of December, 1836, and continued in session two days. This was followed by a second, at Hingham, on the 11th; at Duxbury, on the 18th; at New Bedford, on the 21st and 23d; at Fair Haven, on the 23d; and at East Bridgewater, on the 24th and 25th of the same month. Mr. Brooks continued his labors in the county in the autumn and winter following, sometimes before conventions, and sometimes by his individual appointment. He was at Kingston on the 16th of January, 1837; at South Hingham, February 4th; at Quincy, February 21st; at Dunbury, May 10th; at Hansen, July 9th; at Plymouth, October 24th; and at Weymouth, November 5th.

The labors of this gentleman were not confined to the old colony, or even to the State of Massachusetts. In the course of the same year he lectured at Northampton, Springfield, Deerfield, Boston, Middleborough, and other places in Massachusetts, in 1836 and 1837, and particularly in the Hall of the House of Representatives on the 18th and 19th of January, 1837, during the memorable session of the Legislature, in which the Board of Education was instituted; and on the 28th of January, 1836, during the no less memorable session, by which the first appropriation in behalf of Normal Schools was made. His theme every where was the

* From Barnard's "*Normal Schools and other Institutions, Agencies and Means designed for the professional Education of teachers. Part I. United States. Part II. Europe.*" H. Cowperthwait & Co. Philadelphia.

Teacher—"As is the Teacher, so is the School,"—and the aim of all his discourses was to induce individuals and legislatures to establish Normal Schools and other agencies for improving the qualifications and the pecuniary and social condition of the teacher, as the source of all other improvements in popular education. His facts and illustrations were drawn from the experience of Prussia and Holland. Mr. Brooks closed his active labors in this cause in Massachusetts after he had the satisfaction of seeing the Board of Education established, and the first Normal School opened; but not until he had made a powerful effort to get one of these institutions located in Plymouth county, by means of the educational convention held at Hanover, on the 3d of September, 1838, which was graced by the presence and address of several of the most distinguished public men in the commonwealth. After noticing the proceedings of that convention, we will return to our narrative.

At a meeting of the "Plymouth County Association for the Improvement of Common Schools," held at Hanover, September 3d, 1838, the question of a *Normal School in Plymouth County* was discussed by an array of distinguished men, such as the cause has seldom brought together in this country. The following notice of the proceedings is abridged from the Hingham Patriot. After an address by Mr. Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, on "*Special Preparation, a Pre-requisite to Teaching*," Rev. Mr. Brooks, of Hingham, introduced a resolution approving of a plan, proposed by a committee of the Association, to raise in the several towns in the county a sum sufficient to provide a building, fixtures, and apparatus, in order to secure the location of one of the three Normal Schools which the Board proposed to establish in Plymouth county. Mr. Brooks excused himself from advocating the resolution, inasmuch as he had reiterated his views on the subject in every town in the county, and published them in two addresses through the press; he therefore gave way to friends from abroad, who had come with strong hands and warm hearts to aid in the holy work.

Mr. Ichabod Morton, of Plymouth, who had, two years before, out of a large heart, and small resources, offered to meet one tenth of the expense of the enterprise, advocated the raising up better teachers, who, by a Christian education, could carry the happiness of childhood fresh and whole through life.

Mr. Rantoul, of Gloucester, thought a reformation in our common schools was exceedingly needed, and this change for the better could only be effected by better teachers, well paid, and permanently employed.

Rev. George Putnam, of Roxburg:—

"For himself he saw no objection to the establishment of Normal Schools. But perhaps some might say, there was no need of special preparation for a teacher. To this opinion he must emphatically object. If there be any department for the able and proper performance of whose duties special instruction be absolutely necessary it is that of the educator. He said he had once kept school, and with tolerable acceptance, he believed, to his employers, but though just from college, he found himself deficient in the very first steps of elementary knowledge. He had studied all the mathematics required at Cambridge, but he did not know how to come at a young mind so as successfully to teach enu-

meration. He had studied the classics; but he could not teach a boy how to construct a simple English paragraph. He found himself wanting in that highest of arts, the art of simplifying difficult things so that children can grasp them. He therefore, from his own experience, ventured to say, that no liberal profession so comes short of its objects as that of the schoolmaster. Few, very few, apprehend its difficulties. To know how to enter the child's soul, and when there to know what to do, is knowledge possessed but by few, and if there be a province in which specific preparation be necessary it is this; and this very preparation is what Normal Schools promise to confer. We want no law schools, or any higher schools or colleges at this time, so much as we want seminaries, to unfold the young minds of this community. Another objection might be with some, that a Normal School in Plymouth County was some trick of the rich to get advantage of the poor. He ably refuted this objection. He said it happened to have a directly opposite tendency. It was to be a free school; free in tuition and open to the poorest of the poor. It would eminently benefit the poor. The rich would not go to it except where a great love of teaching actuated a rich young person. On the other hand it would be a free school where a very superior education would be furnished gratis to any one who wished to become a teacher in the county. Another objection might be felt by some, viz., that it may tend to raise the wages of our teachers. To this he replied, that females might become teachers to a wider extent than now. It would, moreover, raise common schools to be the best schools in the community; and when they had become the best schools, as they should be, then the money now spent in private schools would be turned in to the public ones, as in the Latin School at Boston, and higher wages could be given without any additional burden on our towns. He asked why should not the great mass of the people have the best schools? Why should not talent and money be expended on town schools as well as on academies and colleges? Let the town schools be made as good as to force all parents, from mere selfishness, to send their children. Let all our young people come together, as republicans should, find common sympathies, and move by a common set of nerves. The Normal School, while it opens infinite advantages to the poor, will lessen their burdens and elevate them to knowledge and influence."

Hon. John Quincy Adams:—

"He had examined the subject of late, and he thought the movements in this county by the friends of education had been deliberate and wise and Christian; and he thought the plan, contemplated by the very important resolution before the meeting, could not but find favor with every one who would examine and comprehend it. All accounts concur in stating a deficiency of competent teachers. He said, when he came to that meeting, he had objections to the plan rising in his mind; but those objections had been met and so clearly answered, that he now was convinced of the wisdom and forecast of the project, and that it aimed at the best interests of this community. Under this head, and alluding to his views, he said, the original settlers of New England were the first people on the face of the globe who undertook to say that all children should be educated. On this our democracy has been founded. Our town schools, and town meetings, have been our stronghold in this point; and our efforts now are to second those of our pious ancestors. Some kingdoms of Europe have been justly praised for their patronage of elementary instruction, but they were only following our early example. Our old system has made us an enlightened people, and I feared that the Normal School system was to subvert the old system, take the power from the towns and put it into the state, and overturn the old democratic principle of sustaining the schools by a tax on property; but, I am happy to find that this is not its aim or wish; but on the contrary, it is accordant to all the old maxims, and would elevate the town schools to the new wants of a growing community. He said, he thought of other objections, but they were so faint as to have faded out of his mind. We see monarchs expending vast sums, establishing Normal Schools through their realms, and sparing no pains to convey knowledge and efficiency to all the children of their poorest subjects. *Shall we be outdone by Kings?* Shall monarchies steal a march on republics in the patronage of that education on which a republic is based? On this great and glorious cause let us expend freely, yes, *more* freely than on any other. There was a usage, he added, in the ancient republic of Sparta, which now

occurred to him, and which filled his mind with this pleasing idea, viz., that these endeavors of ours for the fit education of all our children would be the means of raising up a generation around us which would be superior to ourselves. The usage alluded to was this: the inhabitants of the city on a certain day collected together and marched in procession; dividing themselves into three companies; the old, the middle-aged, and the young. When assembled for the sports and exercises, a dramatic scene was introduced, and the three parties had each a speaker; and Plutarch gives the form of phraseology used in the several addresses on the occasion. The old men speak first; and addressing those beneath them in age, say,—

"We have been in days of old
Wise, generous, brave, and bold."

Then come the middle-aged, and casting a triumphant look at their seniors, say to them,—

"That which in days of yore ye were,
We, at the present moment, are."

Last march forth the children, and looking bravely upon both companies who had spoken, they shout forth thus:—

"Hereafter at our country's call,
We promise to surpass you all."

Hon. Daniel Webster:—

"He was anxious to concur with others in aid of the project. The ultimate aim was to elevate and improve the primary schools; and to secure competent instruction to every child which should be born. No object is greater than this; and the means, the forms and agents are each and all important. He expressed his obligation to town schools, and paid a tribute to their worth, considering them the foundation of our social and political system. He said he would gladly bear his part of the expense. The town schools need improvement; for if they are no better now than when he attended them, they are insufficient to the wants of the present day. They have, till lately, been overlooked by men who should have considered them. He rejoiced at the noble efforts here made of late, and hoped they might be crowned with entire success. * * It has become the fashion to teach every thing through the press. Conversation, so valued in ancient Greece, is overlooked and neglected; whereas it is the richest source of culture. We teach too much by manuals, too little by direct intercourse with the pupil's mind; we have too much of words, too little of things. Take any of the common departments, how little do we really know of the practical detail, say geology. It is taught by books. It should be taught by excursions in the fields. So of other things. We begin with the abstracts, and know little of the detail of facts; we deal in generals, and go not to particulars; we begin with the representative, leaving out the constituents. Teachers should teach things. It is a reproach that the public schools are not superior to the private. If I had as many sons as old Priam, I would send them all to the public schools. The private schools have injured, in this respect, the public; they have impoverished them. They who should be in them are withdrawn; and like so many uniform companies taken out of the general militia, those left behind are none the better. This plan of a Normal School in Plymouth County is designed to elevate our common schools, and thus to carry out the noble ideas of our pilgrim fathers. There is growing need that this be done. But there is a larger view yet. Every man and every woman, every brother and every sister, is a teacher. Parents are eminently teachers. Every man has an interest in the community, and helps his share to shape it. Now, if Normal Schools are to teach teachers, they enlist this interest on the right side; they make parents and all who any way influence childhood competent to their high office. The good which these Seminaries are thus to spread through the community is incalculable. They will turn all the noblest enthusiasm of the land into the holy channel of knowledge and virtue. Now, if our Plymouth school succeeds, they will go up in every part of the state, and who then can compute the exalted character which they may finally create among us? In families there will be better teaching, and the effect will be felt throughout society. This effort thus far has done good. It has raised in many minds a clear conviction of the importance of competent teachers; and a clear benefit

to follow this will be, to raise the estimation in which teachers should be held. He hoped that this course of policy would raise, even beyond what we expected, the standard of elementary instruction. He considered the cost very slight. It can not come into any expanded mind as an objection. If it be an experiment, it is a noble one, and should be tried."

[Mr. Webster has always stood out a bold and eloquent advocate of common schools. In his centennial address at Plymouth, in 1822, he paid the following noble tribute to the policy of New England in this respect:—

"In this particular, New England may be allowed to claim, I think, a merit of a peculiar character. She early adopted and has constantly maintained the principle, that it is the undoubted right, and the bounden duty of government, to provide for the instruction of all youth. That which is elsewhere left to chance, or to charity, we secure by law. For the purpose of public instruction, we hold every man subject to taxation in proportion to his property, and we look not to the question, whether he himself have, or have not, children to be benefited by the education for which he pays. We regard it as a wise and liberal system of police, by which property; and life, and the peace of society are secured. We seek to prevent, in some measure, the extension of the penal code, by inspiring a salutary and conservative principle of virtue and of knowledge in an early age. We hope to excite a feeling of respectability, and a sense of character, by enlarging the capacity, and increasing the sphere of intellectual enjoyment. By general instruction, we seek, as far as possible, to purify the whole moral atmosphere; to keep good sentiments uppermost, and to turn the strong current of feeling and opinion, as well as the censures of the law, and the denunciations of religion, against immorality and crime. We hope for a security, beyond the law, and above the law, in the prevalence of enlightened and well-principled moral sentiment. We hope to continue and prolong the time, when, in the villages and farm-houses of New England, there may be undisturbed sleep within unbarred doors. And knowing that our government rests directly on the public will, that we may preserve it, we endeavor to give a safe and proper direction to that public will. We do not, indeed, expect all men to be philosophers or statesmen; but we confidently trust, and our expectation of the duration of our system of government rests on that trust, that by the diffusion of general knowledge and good and virtuous sentiments, the political fabric may be secure, as well against open violence and overthrow, as against the slow but sure undermining of licentiousness."

In a speech delivered at Madison, Indiana, after congratulating the people of the state on the attention they had paid to common school education, Mr. Webster adds:—

"Among the planets in the sky of New England—the burning lights, which throw intelligence and happiness on her people—the first and most brilliant is her system of common schools. I congratulate myself that my first speech on entering public life was in their behalf. Education, to accomplish the ends of good government, should be universally diffused. Open the doors of the school-house to all the children of the land. Let no man have the excuse of poverty for not educating his own offspring. Place the means of education within his reach, and if they remain in ignorance, be it his own reproach. If one object of the expenditure of your revenue be protection against crime, you could not devise a better or cheaper means of obtaining it. Other nations spend their money in providing means for its detection and punishment, but it is for the principles of our government to provide for its never occurring. The one acts by *coercion*, the other by *prevention*. On the diffusion of education among the people rests the preservation and perpetuation of our free institutions. I apprehend no danger to our country from a foreign foe. The prospect of a war with any powerful nation is too remote to be a matter of calculation. Besides, there is no nation on earth powerful enough to accomplish our overthrow. Our destruction, should it come at all, will be from another quarter. From the inattention of the people to the concerns of their government—from their care-

lessness and negligence—I must confess that I do apprehend some danger. I fear that they may place too implicit a confidence in their public servants, and fail properly to scrutinize their conduct,—that in this way they may be made the dupes of designing men, and become the instruments of their own undoing. Make them intelligent, and they will be vigilant—give them the means of detecting the wrong, and they will apply the remedy.”]

Rev. Dr. Robbins remarked—

“As the offer of the Normal Schools had been first made to the Old Colony, that “mother of us all,” he hoped that the descendants of the pilgrims would sustain the exalted character of their fathers; and, as in times past, so now, go forward in improvements which are to elevate and bless all coming generations.”

The object of the Convention was attained. One of the three Normal Schools which the Board had decided to establish out of the donation of \$10,000, by Mr. Dwight, and the appropriation of the same sum by the state, placed at their disposal, was located at Bridgewater, in Plymouth County.

A previous convention in Plymouth County, at Halifax, on the 24th of January, 1837, had adopted a petition to the Legislature, drawn up by the Rev. Charles Brooks,* asking for the Establishment of a Board of Education, and a Teachers' Seminary; and in the same year, the Directors of the American Institute of Instruction presented a memorial on the same subject, drawn up by George B. Emerson,† of Boston. The Board of Education was established in that year, and the Normal School in the year following.

* Although not directly connected with the history of Normal Schools in Massachusetts, it may be mentioned in this place, that no individual in the whole country has done more to arouse the public mind of New England to the importance of Normal Schools, and to some extent, the leading minds of some other states, than the Rev. Charles Brooks. He lectured before the Legislature of New Hampshire, by their request, at Concord, on the 13th, 14th, and 15th of June, 1837 and 1838, and again in 1845, and in the former year at Keene, Portsmouth, Concord, and Nashua; before the Legislature of Vermont, in 1847, and at several other points in that state; before the State Convention of the friends of education at Hartford, Connecticut, in November, 1856; before the Legislature of New Jersey, March 13, 1839; at Philadelphia about the same time; and at Providence in 1836, during the struggle which ended in the re-organization of the public schools of that city, and at a later period, when the establishment of the Public High School was in jeopardy. On one of these visits, Mr. Brooks delivered eight addresses in seven days. These, however, are not all the times and places in which we have met with notices of his labors and addresses in behalf of his favorite subject. Although his labors, every where, in his own country and out of it, in his own state and out of it, were gratuitous, he did not escape the assaults of the newspapers. In one of these, he was represented as “Captain Brooks,” with ferule in hand, at the head of a troop of schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, marching for a Normal School in the clouds.

† Mr. Emerson commenced his career as a teacher, in a district school, and before opening his private school for young ladies, he was principal of the English High School, in Boston, on its first establishment, in 1821. Under his immediate direction, Colburn's “First Lessons in Intellectual Arithmetic,” printed on separate sheets for this purpose, were first tested, and the deficiencies ascertained in the classes of this school. If Mr. Emerson had rendered no other service to the cause of educational improvement in this country, than to have successfully organized the First Public English High School, and have assisted in perfecting the “First Lessons,” he would be entitled to a large measure of the gratitude of teachers and the public generally.

XV. IDIOTS AND INSTITUTIONS FOR THEIR TRAINING.

BY L. P. BROCKETT, M. D., HARTFORD, CONN.

It was not until the early part of the present century that the condition of the idiot began to attract the attention of the humane. The celebrated surgeon and philosopher, Itard, at Paris, foiled in his attempt to demonstrate his sensational theory by the idiocy of his subject, the famous Savage of Aveyron, was led to consider the possibility of instructing a class hitherto considered hopeless. Being, however, advanced in years, and suffering from the disease which finally terminated his life, Itard felt that his plans must be committed to younger hands for execution; his choice fell upon Dr. Edward Seguin, a favorite pupil of his, and the subsequent history of this noble philanthropic movement has demonstrated the wisdom of that choice. Dr. Seguin possessed an inextinguishable love for his race, indomitable perseverance, a highly cultivated intellect, and a rare degree of executive talent. There were many difficulties to be surmounted, many obstacles to be overcome, ere the first step could be taken; but, before his youthful ardor and enthusiasm, doubts vanished, difficulties disappeared, the thick veil which had enshrouded the mind of the idiot was rent asunder, and these innocent but hapless creatures were rescued from the doom of a life of utter vacuity.

As in other works of philanthropy, so in this, other laborers were ready at once to enter into the harvest. To some of these, undoubtedly, belongs the praise of originating modes of instruction which subsequent experience has proved successful. Among the early pioneers in the cause of the idiot, the names of Belhomme, Ferrus, Falret, Voisin, and Vallee, are deserving of special honor, as having contributed, in various ways, to its success.

Though something had been accomplished in the way of instructing individual cases, it was not till 1838, that a school for idiots was established which could be regarded as successful. In 1842, a portion of the Bicetre, one of the great hospitals for the insane, was set apart for their instruction, and Dr. Seguin was appointed director. He remained in this position for a time; but, subsequently, established a private institution for idiots in Paris.

It was during this period that he prepared his work on Idiocy, "*Traitement moral, hygiène et Education des Idiots*;" a work which entitles its author to rank with the first professional minds of the day. In his definitions, his classification, his diagnosis, and, above all, in his plans for the treatment and instruction of idiots, he exhibits so thorough a mastery of his subject, such philosophical views, and such admirable tact, that his treatise is invaluable as a manual to all who may undertake similar labors. In consequence of the revolution of 1848, in France, Dr. Seguin came to this country, and is now connected with the Pennsylvania School for Idiots, at Germantown.

The success of Dr. Seguin and his co-laborers, at Paris, stimulated the philanthropic in other countries of Europe to attempt similar institutions. Of these, that established at Berlin, in 1842, under the direction of M. Saegert, has been most successful. Our reports of this Institution are not very late, but it is still, we believe, in a prosperous condition. M. Saegert seems to possess, in a very high degree, that genial temper so necessary for the successful training of this unfortunate class.

Contemporaneously with the organization of the school for idiots, at Berlin, the attention of the benevolent was called to a class of imbeciles, hitherto entirely neglected, but whose numbers seemed almost sufficient to paralyze effort in their behalf.

In Savoy, and the departments of Isère, of the High Alps, and the Low Alps in France, as well as in some of the other mountainous districts of Europe and Asia, especially in the narrow and precipitous valleys of these regions, a disease prevails, known as goitre. Its most marked feature is a prodigious enlargement of the glands of the throat, accompanied, in most cases, with general degeneration of the system. It is attributed by medical writers to impurity of air and imperfect ventilation, to want of sufficient light, the sun penetrating these valleys for not more than one or two hours of the day, to impure water, innutritious food, severe labor, and extreme poverty. The children of these persons are, of course, far more diseased than their parents, and are subject to a form of idiocy called Cretinism. Retaining usually the goitre, they also suffer from feeble and swollen limbs, distorted and deformed features, pale, bloodless and tumid skin, and almost entire helplessness. They form, indeed, the lowest grades of idiocy. The number of these poor wretches is almost incredible. In the four departments named above, with a population of 958,000, M. Niepce found, in 1850, 54,000 Cretins, or about five per cent. of the entire population. In several of the cantons, one-third of the whole population were Cretins; and, in some hamlets, as, for instance, in that of

Bozel, in the canton of the same name, out of 1,472 inhabitants, 1,011 were either affected with goitre or cretinism.

The attention of a young physician of Zurich, Dr. Guggenbuhl, was attracted to these unfortunates in 1839; and, after two or three years of experiment had demonstrated the possibility of improving their condition, he resolved to devote himself to their instruction. He accordingly purchased from the eminent agriculturist, Kasthofer, a tract of land, which he had already put under cultivation. It was situated on the Abendberg, above Interlachen, about four thousand feet above the level of the sea, and commanded a view of one of the finest landscapes in Switzerland. To this elevated and healthful location he brought as many cretin children as he had the means of instructing; and, with a philanthropic zeal and patience which none but those who have witnessed his labors can fully appreciate, he has toiled on, (till impaired health compelled him, some three years since, to entrust his cares, for a time, to other hands,) developing intellect where few would have suspected its existence, and carrying joy to many a household which had mourned over the hopeless idiocy of their children. This institution has been the parent of several others for the treatment of cretins on the continent of Europe, particularly in Wurtemberg, Bavaria, Sardinia, Prussia and Saxony.

Dr. Kern, formerly of Eisenach, established, at Leipsic, in 1846, a private institution for the education of idiots or feeble-minded youth. In 1855, a building was erected for this institution in the village of Gohlis, near Leipsic. Children are received without distinction of birth-place, religion, or sex, their friends or charitable persons paying the necessary charges.

The translation and publication of some reports of the school on the Abendberg by Dr. Twining, and Dr. Conolly's account of the labors of Dr. Seguin and his coadjutors, led to the establishment of a school for idiots at Bath, England, in 1846. Others were organized soon after at Brighton and Lancaster. In the autumn of 1847, an effort was made to establish an institution on a large scale, capable of accommodating the increasing numbers who sought for instruction. In this movement, Rev. Dr. Andrew Reed (whose visit to this country will be remembered with pleasure by many,) was the leader, and to his labors and those of Dr. John Conolly, whose life-long devotion to the cause of the insane have made him known wherever the English tongue is spoken, the success of the enterprise is mainly due. While making preparations for the erection of a magnificent hospital for idiots, the patrons of this institution deemed it desirable to commence, at once, the work of instruction, and accordingly, a school was com-

mended at the Park House, Highgate, (formerly a nobleman's residence,) on the 27th of April, 1848. This becoming full in less than two years, the committee accepted the liberal offer of Sir S. M. Peto, to devote Essex Hall, Colchester, to their service. This, also, was soon filled and a third building obtained. Meantime, the friends of the idiot were indefatigable in their efforts to procure funds for the erection of their new asylum. In June, 1853, the corner-stone of the new edifice, at Earlswood, near Reigate, Surrey, was laid by Prince Albert. It is intended to contain accommodations for 400 pupils, and is now nearly or quite completed. Its estimated cost is \$175,000, aside from the price of the estate, which contains about one hundred acres. It is intended to elevate Essex Hall into an independent asylum, on the completion of the edifice at Earlswood. Measures have also been recently adopted for the establishment of an Asylum for Idiots in the vicinity of Edinburgh, and at several other points in the United Kingdom.

The movement in this country appears to have been contemporaneous with that in England. On the 13th of January, 1846, Hon. F. F. Backus, of Rochester, New York; at that time a member of the Senate of that State, moved a reference of that portion of the State Census referring to idiots, to the committee on Medical Societies, of which he was chairman, and on the 15th of the same month read a report on the subject, prepared with great care, and embodying the results of inquiries made the previous Autumn, urging the necessity of an institution for idiots, in the State of New York, and narrating the success of similar institutions in Europe. On the 25th of March following, Dr. Backus reported a bill for the purchase of a site and the erection of suitable buildings, for an Asylum for Idiots. His bill passed the Senate, and was at first concurred in by the House, but subsequently rejected, on the ground that the party who were then in power had pledged themselves to retrenchment of the expenses of the State. A similar bill passed the Senate the succeeding year but was lost in the house.

On the 22nd of January, 1846, Hon. Horatio Byington, (in whose recent death Massachusetts has lost an eminent citizen, and humanity a benefactor,) offered a resolution in the Massachusetts House of Representatives, for the appointment of a commission to investigate the condition of idiots, in that State. Judge Byington's attention had been called to the subject, according to his own statement, by a letter from Dr. S. B. Woodward, the eminent philanthropist, with whom Dr. Backus had held correspondence previous to his own action, in the New York legislature.

The resolution of Judge Byington passed both houses, and Dr. S.

G. Howe, so well known for his labors in behalf of the blind, Judge Byington and Gilman Kimball, Esq., were appointed Commissioners. Their reports were very full and able, and conclusively demonstrated the necessity of providing for the instruction of the unfortunate class whose condition they had investigated. For the purpose of testing the capacity of idiots for instruction, however, an experimental school was established at South Boston, under Dr. Howe's personal supervision. This resulted in the establishment, in 1851, of the "Massachusetts school for idiotic and feeble-minded youth," at South Boston, of which Dr. Howe has a general oversight.

It is not to be understood, however, that idiots had not been instructed, in this country, previous to the Autumn of 1848, the period when the experimental school, at South Boston, was organized. Indeed, there is reason to believe that their instruction had been attempted, with success here, prior to the first efforts in Europe. As early as 1818, an idiot girl was admitted into the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, at Hartford, Conn., and remained under instruction till 1824. Others were received during nearly every subsequent year, and some of them made very considerable progress. In all, thirty-four idiots have been pupils at that institution, and the success which has followed the efforts for the instruction of several of the cases, of which we have a detailed narrative, would do no discredit to any Asylum for Idiots, either in Europe or this country.

In 1839, an idiot boy was received into the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, and remained for three years, under the instruction of Prof. Morris, with very favorable results.

The same year, Dr. S. G. Howe commenced the instruction of an idiotic blind child, at the Perkins Institution for the Blind, in South Boston.

In July, 1848, Dr. H. B. Wilbur, of Barre, Mass., who had for several years taken a deep interest in the condition of idiots, opened a private institution for their instruction, which, both under his administration and that of his successor, Dr. Geo. Brown, has met with the most gratifying success.

Other gentlemen in Massachusetts devoted a large measure of zeal and energy to the promotion of this good work. Among these it may not be invidious to name Mr. George Sumner, whose eloquent letters from Europe, describing the school at Bicetre, rendered efficient aid to the incipient organization of the Massachusetts School for Idiots, and Dr. Edward Jarvis, whose valuable statistics on the subject of insanity and idiocy, recently published, have laid the country under obligation.

The Legislature of New York, though before any other in taking cognizance of the subject of idiocy, was more tardy in its action than that of Massachusetts, and it was not till 1851 that an experimental school was established at Albany, and Dr. Wilbur, who had already had three years experience in the instruction of imbeciles, at Barre, was elected its Superintendent. In 1854, the corner-stone of the State Asylum for Idiots, was laid at Syracuse, and in August, 1855, the school at Albany, already permanently established, was removed to the new edifice. The Asylum occupies a commanding site, to the southwest of the city of Syracuse, and while its architectural beauty renders it an ornament to the enterprising city whose liberality secured its location, and to the State whose munificence provided such ample accommodations for this hitherto neglected class, its internal arrangements are so admirable as to make it a desirable model for institutions of the kind.

With an edifice so well arranged, a superintendent in whom are combined, in a remarkable degree, those traits of character which mark the successful instructor, and a corps of teachers of extraordinary efficiency, it is not surprising that the results attained by the Asylum, even at this early period of its history, surpass those of any institution of the kind in this country or Europe.

Pennsylvania has also established a school for the training of idiots, at Germantown, now in its third year of successful progress under the care of Mr. J. B. Richards, who was connected with the Massachusetts experimental school during the first two or three years of its history. The recent accession of Dr. Seguin to the corps of instructors in this school, can not fail to increase, very greatly, its reputation.

During the past year, Connecticut and Kentucky have taken the first steps toward the establishment of similar institutions.

Having thus hastily sketched the history of this humanitarian movement, it remains for us to discuss the objects proposed in the treatment of Idiots, the means by which these objects are accomplished, and the results thus far attained in the most successful schools.

It may be well, as a preliminary step, to answer two or three questions which meet us at the threshold of our investigations. And first, what constitutes idiocy? "The type of an idiot," says Dr. Seguin, "is an individual who knows nothing, can do nothing, and wishes nothing; and every idiot approaches more or less to this maximum of incapacity." Of the many definitions which writers on this subject have essayed, no one appears entirely free from objection; and though we can hardly hope to escape falling into the same condemnation, we

are disposed to offer one which shall, at least, possess the merit of brevity. We should define idiocy, then, *as the result of an infirmity of the body which prevents, to a greater or less extent, the development of the physical, moral and intellectual powers.*

What is the proportion of idiots to the population? The data we yet possess do not seem to be sufficient to answer this question accurately, in regard to our own country, though approximations have been made towards a census of this class, in several States. In the mountainous districts of Europe the number of cretins, as already stated, is very great. In the Alpine districts they constitute from 5 to 10 per cent. of the population; in Great Britain, according to recent returns, there are over 50,000, a little more than one-half of one per cent.; in France, nearly or quite one-third of one per cent.; in this country, Connecticut has fully one-fifth of one per cent.; Massachusetts, according to Dr. Jarvis' late report, has about one-ninth of one per cent.; but this is undoubtedly far below the truth, for it is almost impossible to obtain, even with tolerable accuracy, the statistics of large cities; thus, in Dr. J.'s report, Boston, with 170,000 inhabitants, reports only 21 idiots, while Barnstable, with only 5,000, reports 25!

What are the causes of idiocy? Few questions are more difficult of full and satisfactory solution than this. We have already enumerated the alledged causes of cretinism, but we are satisfied that M. Niepce has not given sufficient prominence to one cause to which he refers incidentally, the *bad brandy*, ("mauvaise eau-de-vie,") which they drink in such quantities as to produce the most brutish intoxication.

In England and this country, intemperance on the part of one or both parents, is certainly the most prolific cause of fatuity, and when poverty, filth, recklessness, and intemperance are united, and the half starved inebriate, maddened with woe, drinks that he may forget his wretchedness, we have a combination of circumstances which can hardly fail to produce idiocy in his offspring.

There are cases, however, and the number is quite considerable, in which we must look for other causes than intemperance or extreme poverty. For some of these the inter-marriage of near relatives, for one or two generations, is a satisfactory reason; for others, hereditary tendency to insanity, to scrofula, or to consumption; in others still, indulgence in licentious habits, or the attempt to destroy the life of the unborn babe, a practice which is fearfully increasing in our country, must be assigned as the cause; ignorance, selfishness, and avarice, must be reckoned, also, among the sources of this fearful infirmity. It has often occurred that when one or both parents were so fully possessed with the greed of gain, that intellectual and moral culture

were wholly neglected, and in their furious pursuit of wealth they paused not for the rest of the Sabbath, thought not of the future, and heeded not the appeals of the poor, the sick, or the dying for sympathy or succor, their offspring have been idiots of the very lowest class.

In short, humiliating as the thought may be, we are driven to the conclusion that the vast amount of idiocy, in our world, is the direct result of violation of the physical and moral laws which govern our being; that oft times the sins of the fathers are thus visited upon their children; and that the parent, for the sake of a momentary gratification of his depraved appetite, inflicts upon his hapless offspring a life of utter vacuity.

We shall come to a better understanding of the objects to be attained in the treatment of idiocy, if we consider first the condition of the idiot before he has been instructed. When first brought to the Asylum, he is generally feeble, wanting in muscular development, often partially paralyzed, sluggish, and inactive; the circulation of the blood is very imperfect, especially in the extremities; there is a general unhealthy look; the nervous system is frequently deranged; the gait and voluntary movements generally awkward and irregular; he is usually addicted to slaving and automatic motion of the head, hands, lips, or tongue; the senses are undeveloped; the eye is perfectly formed, but the retina communicates to the brain no definite idea of form, color, or size; the ear is without defect, yet often the sweetest notes of music and the most hideous and discordant sounds pass alike unheeded; the organs of speech are as perfect as those of Webster or Clay, but he is either entirely dumb, or utters only guttural sounds which convey no idea to others; his appetite, tastes, and habits are more gross than those of most animals; he often exhibits the voracity of the wolf, and the uncleanness of the swine. His mind is as much degraded as his physical nature—only his instincts of hunger, thirst, fear, rage, and resistance have been developed. It is needless to add, that while in such a condition moral emotion is impossible. Such is the condition of very many of those who are brought to these institutions for training. It would be difficult to conceive of cases apparently more hopeless.

The object of training is to change this torpid, sluggish, inert condition, to health, vigor, and activity; to send the healthy red blood coursing through the veins and arteries; to overcome the automatic movements, and subject the nervous system to the control of the will; to substitute for the vacant gaze of the idiot, the intelligent, speaking eye, which recognizes the hues of beauty in the rainbow, and reads in the countenance of friendship, the look of reproof or the glance of

love ; to accustom the inattentive ear to recognize the stern tones of rebuke, or the gentle accents of affection ; to notice and enjoy the melodies of the songsters of the grove, or the more expressive songs warbled by human voices ; to accustom those lips which have hitherto uttered only unmeaning and discordant sounds, to speak, if not with all the graces of oratory, at least with distinctness and fluency.

A further object of training is to overcome the filthy and degrading habits in which the idiot has hitherto indulged ; to transform this gluttonous, beastly creature, into a man, capable of observing all the proprieties of life, no longer greedy, selfish, voracious, and quarrelsome, but temperate, quiet, courteous, and thoughtful of the interest of others ; to rouse the hitherto dormant intellect, to induce mental activity, and stimulate thought and study ; and above all, to awaken the consciousness of his responsibility to God, and of his duties toward his fellow man.

Do you say that the attainment of these objects is beyond the power of humanity ? We answer that this result has been accomplished, and is now in the process of accomplishment, in every school for idiots in this country and Europe. It requires, indeed, patience, intelligence, and love, all in active exercise ; but these qualities have not yet deserted our earth, and there yet live men and women whose names should be held in everlasting remembrance, for that moral heroism which has led them to devote the best years of their lives to the elevation of these, the lowest and humblest of our race.

The means adopted to accomplish such wonderful results are, of course, varied. Among these the apparatus of the gymnasium holds a high rank. By means of the ladders, swings, steps, dumb bells, &c., the muscular system is developed and invigorated ; automatic movement overcome ; the eye, the ear, and the muscles brought under the control of the will ; concert of action and obedience to commands enforced ; and the perceptions quickened and elevated.

The cultivation of the faculty of speech is a work of great difficulty, often requiring one or two years of patient labor before the enunciation of the first word. Instruction in this, as in every thing else where idiots are the pupils, must be of the most elementary character. It is necessary, for instance, in teaching the compound sounds, such as *ch*, *th*, *gr*, *br*, *cr*, to resolve them into their original elements, and teach the child each constituent, at first, separately, and afterwards in combination. The attention is attracted and the perceptive faculties cultivated by lessons in objects ; form and size are taught by blocks of different sizes and forms, which the pupil is required to insert into corresponding cavities in a board ; color by

wooden figures of the same form but of different hues. Practice in working with crewels, and picture lessons have also proved of great advantage.

Words are next taught, not letters, for a *word* can be associated with an object, in the mind of a pupil, while letters can not; next, the ideas of form and size, already acquired, are put in practice by writing and drawing; Geography is taught by outline maps, and the elementary principles of grammar by exercises dictated by the teacher.

The idea of number is, perhaps, the most difficult of acquisition for the idiot. Very few can count beyond three or four when brought to the Asylum. This incapacity is overcome by patient and repeated exercises, until, step by step, the mysteries of numeration, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division have been unravelled. The process is slow and painful, but it is at last crowned with success.

In the development of the moral nature, great difficulties are encountered. The comprehension of an abstract idea is far beyond an idiot's capacity; his conception of goodness must be derived from the manifestation of it in his teachers and friends; of sin, from his own misconduct or that of others; hence, with him, love must be the key note of all progress, and under its genial influence, his stubborn and refractory nature will yield like wax before the fire; his vicious and hurtful propensities become subject to control; and learning to love "his brother whom he hath seen," he soon attains to some knowledge and love for "God whom he hath not seen," and his humble, childlike faith should put to the blush many, who with more exalted intellects are wandering in the mazes of unbelief.

Not far from one-fourth of all the idiots in any State or country, are susceptible of improvement by the treatment we have described. In the countries where cretinism prevails, pupils over seven years of age are not considered as capable of successful instruction, but in other countries idiots are received up to the age of fifteen or sixteen, and in the English schools up to twenty-five or thirty, even. There is, however, far less hope of material progress in adults than in children—and it is hardly desirable that those beyond fourteen or fifteen should be placed under instruction. Epilepsy, a not infrequent concomitant of idiocy, is a serious bar to improvement, and where severe, entirely precludes the idea of any considerable success.

That the schools already established have been successful, in improving the condition of idiots, beyond what their most sanguine friends dared hope, is a fact admitting of no question; that they are not yet perfect, none will more readily acknowledge than those who have labored longest in them; further experience will undoubtedly add to

the resources of the teacher, and may render his labors less arduous, while it insures him a greater measure of success. What has already been accomplished may, perhaps, be more satisfactorily demonstrated by the narrative of a few cases, than by any other method.

The following case is from the report of the English Asylum for Idiots, at Highgate, for 1854:

"B. T., a boy aged 15 years. Admitted, *Oct.*, 1852. Was the sport of all the boys of the village; was afraid of strangers; would not speak to any one, even to his friends; he appeared quite hopeless. *April*, 1854. He did not speak for four months after admission; was constantly moping; he has now found that he is with friends, and is gaining courage; can speak well; will repeat the creed, commandments, and church prayers accurately; is very attentive to the religious services at home, and is anxious to go to church every Sunday; can read and write well; and is a basket maker."

The following is from Dr. Guggenbuhl's report, for 1852:

"Marie was received into the Institution of the Abendberg, at the age of seven and a half years. She was in a state of atrophy; her skin was cold, hung loose like a sack, and was covered with an eruption; she could not walk; her joints were soft and unable to support her weight; she could not speak a word, but would make a howling noise for hours together; ate any thing that came in her way; destroyed all that could be broken, and gave no attention to any thing that passed before her; at times she would beat and even bite herself; during several months she never slept at night. After six months she was able to stand alone, and at the end of a year could walk very well; her voracious appetite is overcome, and she now eats properly; the nervous excitement is subdued; she is obedient and friendly; converses very well; plays with flowers and animals, calls them by name, and enjoys the blessing of sleep of which she had long been deprived."

Dr. Brown, the Superintendent of the Institution at Barre, Mass., gives the following case in his report for 1853:

"A young man of 18 years of age, who, from infancy, had been always peculiar and deficient in his mental manifestations, and was entirely dumb. From want of proper culture and direction of the vocal organs, he could make only the guttural sound of the Trachea; did not move the lips when attempting to utter sounds; was extremely filthy and brutish in his habits, disobedient and sluggish in the extreme.

His physical health was perfect, his muscles were largely and well developed. His perception was good, and he understood what was said to him but could not apply his knowledge; his hearing was perfect. Having been left unrestrained from childhood, and having

attained to an age when the evil habits he had acquired had become fixed, and his animal appetites being his only source of enjoyment, I received him with great reluctance, expecting that he would make very little improvement.

He has now been with me a little more than a year. It was nearly three months before I succeeded in inducing him to utter a correct vocal sound. I moulded his lips with my fingers; put blocks and rings of various sizes and shapes into his mouth; taught him general and special imitation; and finally succeeded in concentrating sufficient nervous energy on the muscles of the lips and vocal organs to enable him to master all the vowels, and by dint of perseverance, patience, and drilling, he finally acquired the ability to pronounce the consonants and many of their combinations. By a rigid course of discipline his filthy habits were overcome.

He now reads in Webb's First Reader, and is rapidly learning to speak the names of surrounding objects. His ideas of form, of color, and of numbers, are now very good, and he is acquiring a general knowledge of Geography, Arithmetic, and Natural Philosophy. He can write well from a copy, can draw very creditably and is apt at almost any kind of labor. No one would imagine that this well behaved young man, could have led such a mere animal life one year since. He will be capable, under proper superintendence, of being highly useful in any department of labor, and had he been under suitable training when young, he would have been, I think, entirely cured of all his deficiencies.

Dr. Howe, in his report for 1851, describes the following case:

"S. J. W., six years old when admitted in Oct., 1848. He was a pitiful sight to behold. He could not stand or even sit erect. He had no command of his limbs, not even so much as an infant of three months, for it can work its arms and kick its legs vigorously; this poor boy, however, could do neither, but lay almost like a jelly-fish, as though his body were a mass of flesh without any bones in it. He could not even chew solid food, but subsisted on milk, of which he drank large quantities. The utmost he could do, in the way of motion, was to prop up his head with one hand, and move the other feebly about. He seemed to hear, but his eyes were dull and his other senses quite inactive. He drivelled at the mouth, and his habits were, in all respects, like those of an infant. He was speechless, neither using nor understanding language, though he made several sounds which seemed to be a feeble imitation of words.

The mode of treatment adopted was this: he was bathed daily in cold water; his limbs were rubbed; he was dragged about in the open air, in a little wagon, by the other boys; his muscles were exer-

cised; he was made to grasp with his hands, and gradually to raise himself up by them; he was held up and made to bear a little weight on his lower limbs; then a little more, until, at last, to his great delight, he was able to go about alone, by holding on the wall, or to one's finger; even to go up stairs, by clinging to the balusters. During the second year he has continued to improve. He is now decent in all his habits, and tidy in his appearance; his countenance is bright and pleasing; he can sit at the table and feed himself with knife and fork; and though he does not venture to go alone, his limbs not being quite strong enough, he can almost do it, and he walks about by holding on to one's finger; all his senses have improved greatly, and he is so changed, generally, that he could hardly be recognized as the same being who, two years ago, incapable of sitting at a desk, used to lie upon a mattress in the school-room."

Mr. James B. Richards, of Germantown, gives the following account of the remarkable improvement of a boy under his training.

"A case of congenital idiocy—one of the most hopeless and degraded creatures that could be found; presenting to the bodily eye extremely feeble claims to being called a human being. He had not learned to creep, nor had he even strength sufficient to roll himself upon the floor when laid upon it. Owing to a paralysis of the lower limbs, they were insensible to pain. Mastication was, with him entirely out of the question. His mother told me that she used to feed him almost exclusively on milk, purchasing for him, as she said, a gallon per day. Although five and a half years of age, he had not apparently any more knowledge of things, their names and uses, than a new born infant.

This being the lowest case that could be found, to test the feasibility of the plan to develop and educate idiotic and imbecile children, it was thought best to undertake his training, although it seemed more like a work of creation than of education. The most sanguine friends of the cause threw discouragements in the way. Yet by a patient and persevering system of well directed effort, he has been so far developed that, at the present time, he walks about the house or yard without any assistance; takes care of himself; attends to his own immediate wants; sits at the table with the family, and feeds himself as well as children ordinarily do; talks perfectly well, and is acquainted with the things around him. In short, *he has learned to read*, and does not differ in his habits from a boy four years of age, unless it be that he is more sluggish in his movements."

A recent visitor at the New York Asylum for Idiots, narrates the following cases:

"Nattie and Willie, now 11 and 12 years of age, were taken from the Idiot house on Randall's Island, by Dr. Wilbur, in Dec., 1851. Their appearance, as described by persons who saw them at that time, must have been painful and disgusting in the extreme. Both had been idiots from birth, both were partially paralyzed, and both entirely dumb, and not capable of understanding more than a dozen words. So hopeless was their condition that the physician at Randall's Island, who was absent when Dr. Wilbur selected them, on his return, wrote to Dr. W., expressing his regret at his selection, as he feared that it would only bring disgrace upon the effort to instruct idiots, to attempt the instruction of those who were so evidently beyond the reach of improvement.

Both now exhibit as much intelligence as ordinary children of their age. Neither speaks very fluently, in consequence of some paralysis still existing, but both are improving rapidly in this respect. Both write well on the blackboard. In thorough knowledge of Grammar and Geography, very few children, of their age, are their equals. In a very severe and protracted examination in Geography, embracing minute details in regard to the topography of most of the countries on the globe, and many particulars in regard to physical Geography, and drawing maps upon the blackboard, neither they nor the other members of a class of six or seven missed a single question. In Grammar, both supplied adjectives, nouns, verbs, or adverbs, to given verbs and nouns, with remarkable promptness and to an extent which would have severely tasked my vocabulary. In Arithmetic, both exhibited perfect familiarity with the ground rules, and Nattie gave at once, any and all multiples of numbers as high as 132, and added, multiplied, and divided fractions with great readiness.

In Bible History, they related, partly in pantomime, but in a most graphic way, any required Bible incident. The extremely amiable and affectionate manners of these two interesting children, and the intense activity of their newly developed intellects, render them particularly attractive to the visitor.

J. C., a girl of 15 years of age, has been under Dr. Wilbur's care a little more than four years. When received, she was mischievous and vicious, very nervous, and could not speak distinctly. She could not be left alone with other children, from a propensity to injure them. She knew some of her letters, but could not be taught to read or write by any ordinary methods.

She now reads well, writes a handsome hand, is remarkably proficient in Geography and Grammar, and has made good progress in addition and subtraction. She sews very neatly, and is very capable

as an assistant in household matters. Her nervousness is no longer troublesome, her waywardness has entirely disappeared. In respect to moral training, she seems more advanced than most of the other pupils. She manifests a remarkable familiarity with Bible History, and with the events in the life of our Saviour. When requested to repeat the Lord's Prayer, she did so with a reverence, an impressiveness, and an evident understanding of its petitions, which exhibited in a very favorable light, her intelligence and thoughtfulness; and as I listened to this once vicious and wayward idiot, thus uttering, in our Saviour's own words, her petitions to the throne of heavenly grace, I was more deeply impressed than ever before, with the adaptation of that sublime prayer to every human want."

Such are the results attained in the very short period since these schools have been established. That all idiots will not make as great improvement as some of these, is undoubtedly true; but all of suitable age and health will improve, and that sufficiently to satisfy the most exacting.

Nor does the history of the past condition of this hapless class afford us any ground for hope that they can be materially elevated from their present condition, by any other means. Nearly, or quite, one-half of the whole number are tenants of our alms houses or houses of correction. Full one-half of the remainder are children of parents who are steeped to the lips in poverty; for these, whether in the alms house or out of it, there can be no improvement, except by removal from their present associations. Fed with improper or innutritious food, often allowed the use of intoxicating drinks, generally idle, often made the sport of thoughtless children and adults, without shame or sense of decency, filthy and degraded, they are pests in community, often exerting a depraving influence over the young, which no subsequent instruction can remove. Nor are the imbecile children of the wealthy generally benefited by their parents' wealth, if allowed to remain at home. The sluggish, inactive temperament, and gluttonous appetite, which are the greatest obstacles to success in their treatment at Asylums, are pampered and indulged at home,—and it often occurs that the worst pupils, in an Institution for Idiots, are the children of the rich. In the present condition of society we see no alternative. These helpless and degraded fellow creatures are on our hands, and we must provide for their instruction and improvement; if we can remove, in part, the blighting, withering results of violated physical laws, let us do so; for they are the victims, not the offenders.

There is, indeed, a great work for the philanthropist and moral reformer to accomplish, to remove the causes of idiocy, insanity, pau-

perism, and crime. God has granted to our day and generation, a clearer insight into the sources whence spring these gigantic evils, than to our fathers, and he has imposed upon us a corresponding obligation to use our best endeavors for their removal. Every arrival from Europe brings hither a host of the lower classes of European Society, often ignorant, degraded, and vicious. These, if suffered to congregate in our large cities, taint the whole community, as with a moral pestilence. They must be scattered over the vast prairies of the west, where profitable labor is possible, where their influence will not be felt, and where, with the prospects of a life of comfort before them, they may become good citizens.

The evils of intemperance must be stayed; we care not whether it be accomplished by a prohibitory law or by any other effective means; but the middle and higher classes owe it to themselves as well as to the suffering poor, to stop the swelling tide of human woe which this vice daily produces; to accomplish this it is not sufficient to close the dram shops,—the use of alcoholic drinks must be abandoned at the tables of the rich, as well as in the hovels of the poor.

A great reform is also needed in the homes of the poor. Model lodging houses and tenements must be erected, not in low, dank, miasmatic localities, but in healthy situations, where light and ventilation, frequent bathing, economy in warmth and cooking, and the privacy of home can be attained; the renting of cellars as tenements and the occupation of tenant houses, such as our public prints have recently exposed, must be prohibited under the severest penalties. Measures must also be adopted for the instruction of the masses, not only in those physiological laws which appertain to their health and well being, but in those branches of intellectual culture which will improve their social condition, and those questions of morals and religion which concern their eternal welfare.

We are firm believers in "the good time coming;" we are satisfied that the race is making progress, that as an eminent statesman has well said, "the frightful number of those unfortunates, whose ranks encumber the march of humanity,—the insane, the idiots, the blind, the deaf, the drunkards, the criminals, the paupers will dwindle away, as the light of knowledge makes clear the laws which govern our existence." But in the words of the same eloquent writer, "in the meantime, let none of them be lost; let none of them be uncared for; but, whenever the signal is given of a man in distress, no matter how deformed, how vicious, how loathsome, even, he may be, let it be regarded as a call to help a brother."

XVII. FAMILY TRAINING AND AGRICULTURAL LABOR IN REFORMATORY EDUCATION.

IN our last Number, [for March,] a few remarks were made on the **CRIMES OF CHILDREN**, for the purpose mainly of arresting the attention of our readers to the length and breadth of the great subject of preventive and reformatory institutions and agencies. We continue the subject in this number by presenting an account of the Agricultural Colonies of France, and particularly of that of Mettray, by M. Demetz,—who in that establishment has achieved one of the most remarkable educational works of our age, by applying on a large scale the principles of domestic and agricultural training to the reformation of young criminals, and the still higher purpose of preventing pauperism and crime, by incorporating those principles into the early education of orphan, pauper and neglected children. His success, confirming the earlier experience of Pestalozzi, at NeuhoF, and of Wichern, at Hamburg, has established the practicability of accustoming young persons, who have been deprived in early life of a religious home, or been subjected to vicious associations and overpowering temptations, to habits of useful labor, and to the kindly restraints and humanizing influences of domestic life.

Small rural colonies, arranged in families, are fast supplanting the great hospitals and asylums, where hundreds of orphans it may be, are well fed, clothed and lodged, under salaried governors, secretaries and keepers, but with little or nothing of that fireside education, that cultivation of the feelings, those habits of mutual help and courtesy, that plantation of delightful remembrances of innocent sports and rambles in the field, or that acquisition of ready tact in all household and rural industry, which are the distinguishing features of a good practical home culture.

Prisons of high stone walls and barred windows, where hundreds of young inmates are congregated with nothing useful for head or hands to do; or else working in large squads, at some undiversified employment, under the watchful eye of armed men, without the cheering word or sympathy of woman, acting and feeling as a mother, sister or companion, or the wise counsel and example of men acting like fathers, brothers, or friends—such places of detention and punishment, are giving way to farm, reform, and industrial schools where young criminals, or those who would soon become such in a majority of cases, the neglected and wretched outcasts of tainted homes, the offspring of vicious and intemperate parents, or the fatherless or motherless boys who commenced their downward career by committing petty thefts to keep life together, or under the influence of bad companionship, and of temptation too strong for their neglected moral culture to resist, where such children are subjected to kind domestic training, to watchful guardianship, and are treated with a long suffering forbearance, while they are acquiring the habit of useful occupation in the workshop, or farm, and are getting rid of their evil impulses and irreg-

ular habits, in the round of duties and employments of a well-regulated household.

These rural and industrial schools, especially on the continent of Europe, constitute an interesting class of educational institutions. They are of two kinds: 1. Asylums and houses for pauper, orphan, deserted, and morally endangered children, who are destitute of that education supplied by the common relationship of the family; 2. Correctional and reformatory schools for children and young persons convicted of crime, or acquitted only as having acted without knowledge, but detained under a certain age for the purpose of being instructed and trained to some useful occupation. In all of them, farm and garden labor is the basis of all industrial instruction; trade and handicraft are recognized and provided for, but are deemed of secondary importance except in a limited number of cases.

The sub-division into groups of families is an essential feature of the reformatory discipline in the institutions designed either for young criminals or morally endangered children. This organization in families, with a trial class or section of six or eight of the best behaved pupils who are allowed more liberty than the rest, and are entrusted with special duties, and into which the new comers are admitted until they can be properly classified, facilitates supervision, fosters a kindly emulation, and permits the application to each inmate of that sort of care and management best adapted to the character and disposition of each, but fitted to prepare them for a life of honest and useful industry in the great world without.

In those which have been most successful—successful from the start, and without any interval of failure, teachers and assistants have been employed who have been attracted to the work, not by mercenary motives, but by a true Christian spirit, and have been trained up to understand thoroughly all the details of the moral, social and industrial system adopted for the reformation of young criminals.

The two institutions which are at once the pioneer and model Reformatories of Europe—the *Rauhen-Hause*, (Rough House,) instituted by T. H. Wichern, at Horn, near Hamburg, and the Agricultural Colony, *Colonie Agricole*, at Mettray, founded in 1839, by Frédéric Auguste Demetz, then a judge of the Court of Appeal, at Paris, and Viscount de Courteilles, a gentleman of wealth and high social standing—are founded upon religion, without which M. Demetz declares, it is impossible for such institutions to exist, and are bound together by the bond of family principle, and sustained throughout by the constant practice of order, self-restraint, obedience and industry.

To a great extent on the principles and after the model of these institutions, the great work of reformatory education is now going forward all over Europe. During the late Industrial Exhibition in Paris, a convention of persons engaged or interested in Reformatory or Charitable Institutions was held, before which M. Demetz read a paper on the Agricultural Colonies [as these reformatories are called] of France, which we copy from a translation in the Irish Quarterly Review, for March, 1856.

Report on Agricultural Colonies, read at the International Meeting of Charity, by M. Demets, Honorary Councillor of the Imperial Court of Paris.

Agricultural colonies may be divided into two classes according to the nature of the population they contain. Establishments under the first head are open to orphans, to deserted children, and sometimes to poor children; those under the second, contain young detenués. Some of these asylums, very few in number, however, may be considered as of a mixed character, and receive indiscriminately, orphans, deserted children, and young detenués.

The idea of occupying in labors of husbandry, children whom desertion, evil disposition, or bad examples, expose, without defence, to the dangers which surround them in the great centers of population is one of long standing. The moral influence of agriculture was recognized at an early period—antiquity proclaimed it by the mouth of Cato: "He who tills the earth," said this sage, "thinks not of doing evil." The laborer, it is true, receives but a small salary, but he knows neither the excitements which beset the *ouvrier* of the cities, nor the expensive habits which swallow up, and render useless, a larger remuneration, nor those frequent failures of employment which so often expose him to a destitution very indifferently provided for, owing to his want of forethought.

It is to the charitable efforts of Pestalozzi that we owe the foundation of the first agricultural colonies. In 1775, this excellent man opened at Neuhoft, in the canton of Argau, for poor and deserted children, an institution of which husbandry and the employments connected with it formed the basis; but his establishment, always surrounded by untoward circumstances, successfully removed to Stanz, to Berthoud, and finally to Yverdon, could nowhere find the conditions of a prosperous existence. Fellenberg, the friend of the poor, followed in the foot steps of Pestalozzi, and adopted his views. He was more fortunate than his predecessor; the institution which he founded in 1779, at Hofwyl, near Berne, saw prosperous days, and shortly after, Vehrli, who was trained in his school, gave an impulse of skill and energy to those institutions of which we are now treating. At the present day they are spread all over Switzerland, and there are few cantons which do not possess, at least, one. Among them it is only just to mention the school of Carra, which owes its existence to Vehrli, and dates from 1820; the colony of Bachtelen organized in 1840, by M. Kuratli, and later still, that of Garance, of which M. Aubanel laid the foundation, and which he has not ceased to aid and support by his great experience.

England followed close on Switzerland in this work of regeneration. In 1789, the Philanthropic Society attempted to initiate a penitential colony, the success of which was unhappily of short duration. In 1820, an asylum was opened at Stretton, which has recently ceased to exist; and at an epoch nearer to our time, the English government established the penitentiary of Parkhurst. Latterly, many private institutions have been founded to meet the same wants, and among others, Red Hill, to which we can hardly give all the praise it deserves.

The colonies of Holland are well known; our notice of them will be brief. It was in 1818, that General Van Den Bosch, laid the foundation of the 'Netherland Society of Beneficence,' and collected adult mendicants and vagabonds into its vast agricultural asylums. Two years after, in 1820, destitute children and orphans were admitted into the institution of Veenhuizen. If the Netherland Society has not produced all the good effects which were at first expected, we must not forget that it was the first to direct attention to the means of relieving the un-

fortunate, and that from its origin to the year 1848, it has supported and sheltered no less than 49,000 individuals.*

The colonies of Belgium did not, in the beginning, present any more favorable results, but since that time this state of things we know is changed, and among the institutions which are highly successful at this day, we may venture to name Huyselede under the admirable direction of our distinguished fellow-laborer, M. Duopetiaux, and which may be considered a model establishment.

In 1833, when we proceeded to the United States for the purpose of studying the penitentiary system, there were, in that country, only some agricultural *ateliers* for the reformation of the young, and these were on a very confined scale.

The first agricultural colonies founded in France, are those of Neuhoft and Measil Saint-Firmin; both date from 1828. The first is a small Protestant establishment which has never exceeded very humble limits, but which has not done less good, notwithstanding. The second was organized by the zeal of the worthy M. Bazin, one of our most learned agriculturists. At first he received the children of the poor, but their destitution was so extensive that he was obliged to give up this class of individuals. Under these circumstances the Society of Adoption for orphans and foundlings, which is at this day in prosperous action, was founded in 1843. These attempts have been successful; we must, however, bear in mind that it was in 1839, a new era of extension and progress commenced for agricultural colonies. In that year an industrial and agricultural establishment was organized at Marseilles, by M. l'Abbe Fessiaux, to whom that city is indebted for many other works of charity; and also the institution of Mettray, founded by the Societe Paternelle under the presidency of M. le Comte de Gasparin. These are reformatory colonies intended for young criminals, and the first which have been established on a large scale in this country.

In order to estimate the results produced by these institutions, it is necessary to consider the evil state of things they were intended to remedy.

Prior to these establishments, the child who was pronounced 'not guilty' was remanded to prison, and, though confined in a quarter separated from the other detainees, 'tis true, was subjected to the same regimen as the most hardened prisoners. In the interior of a prison he could be taught none but a handicraft calling, which obliged him at the end of his confinement to go swell the working population employed in our manufactures, and share its vices and dangers. These children, mostly of a feeble constitution, ended by falling ill in the vitiated air of the workshops of our prisons. They also proved unfit for military service; and 'the tribute of blood,' as it is called, the heaviest of all tributes, fell on the good son who was the honor of his family, and oftentimes its only stay.

Life in the fields supplies a remedy for all the evils we have specified. Vigorous exercise in the open air strengthens the body; and the spectacle of the beauties of nature excites in the human heart a profound sentiment of admiration and gratitude toward the Creator; a poet has said, 'God made the country and man made the town.'

The most correct opinions have at all times met with some opposition, and the system of correctional colonies can not expect to escape censure. 'It is only necessary,' it is said, 'to have infringed the laws, to ensure your sympathies; and among so many children that have a just claim to the succor of your charity, you always select those who merit it the least.'

* We can not pass over in silence all the good which is being effected at the present time in an agricultural colony, founded in Holland by the efforts of M. Springard, and to which this genuine apostle of charity has been pleased to give the name of the "*Netherland Mettray*."

Now in the first place we assert, that the object of colonies founded for young criminals is not to assure them a condition of comfort, but to prevent them from further deprivation. It is a serious mistake to believe in the pleasures of agricultural life; it is on the contrary particularly severe; it obliges the husbandman to brave the inclemencies of the seasons, and to endure the fatigues of long and painful labor. In winter he has to struggle against the severity of cold; in summer against exhaustion, the result of excessive heat; hence we so often see field labor deserted for handicraft work. In proof of our assertion, we can affirm that we have very rarely met with a child just brought to the colony from the *maisons centrales*, who at first has not expressed a wish to return to his former condition.

'But,' it is said again, 'these children are better treated in those asylums than in their own families.' Gentlemen, there are families (such as these) where they perish of hunger! Let us deplore the miseries which we can not relieve, and not be instrumental in re-producing them. For the rest, let us listen to the words of the legislator in order to fix public attention on the regimen which should be adopted for the population of agricultural colonies.

These are the terms in which M. Corne, the reporter of the law concerning young detainees, expresses himself:—

"Who, in general, are those children that even before the age of discernment, have offended, and incurred the rigor of the law? They are for the greater part, young creatures destitute of any kind of home education; some are born of miserable parents who have trained them to beggary, and very often even to theft and robbery; others, sprung from parents who are regardless of their parental duties, or entirely absorbed by their daily occupations; or who let their children wander about the streets, and who, in default of moral restraint, abandon themselves to the most pernicious influences. What is wanting to these unhappy children? A home which will imbue them betimes with honest feelings and moral and religious aspirations.

"It is then 'a home' which is necessary to confer on them, in the bosom of an establishment where just and benevolent teachers know how to join to strict regularity of discipline, that goodness of heart that attracts and attaches, and that exalted morality which gives a relish for integrity, and confers a power of contracting honest habits.

"Now what is wanting in a moral and physical point of view, to those children to whom idleness has given an evil bent, whose passions have been developed at an early age, to whom their parents, subject themselves to all kinds of misery, have communicated a vitiated being, a constitution infected by the germs of serious maladies? To give a right direction to their passions, to restore calmness to their minds, and imbue them with amiable desires and pious aspirations, to purify their blood, and impart robust health to their bodies, they need air, life in the open fields, peaceful habits, and the strengthening labor of the husbandman."

Here we find the legislator proclaiming the advantages of field labors for the young detainees, and urging the founding of agricultural colonies in order to receive them. Even before the establishment of colonies, improvements had been introduced, which we feel it our duty to particularize.

M. Lucas, inspector general of prisons, had conceived the benevolent idea of promoting the foundation of a Patronage Society at Paris for juvenile offenders. It was definitely established in June, 1833, under the direction of a man as eminent for merit as charity, M. Beranger (de la Drome.*)

* See the report of M. Lamarque on the Societies of Patronage, in which will be found arranged in a most complete form, the history of these institutions (*Annales de la Charité*, Juin, 1855.)

This work produced a considerable reduction in the number of the relapsed. Among the means employed, we may particularly mention conditional liberation.

The placing out of the liberated detainees was not without its difficulties. Besides that they had rarely acquired in their business a degree of skill sufficient to place them in the class of good workmen, they inspired the heads of *ateliers* who were acquainted with their antecedents, with not unreasonable mistrust; for those did not feel themselves qualified to subdue the vicious inclinations or evil dispositions which might reappear in their young auxiliaries, freshly liberated, and of whose perfect reformation there was cause to doubt.

The Society of Patronage obtained permission from le Ministre de l'Interieur, that the young detainees who during their sojourn at the penitentiary of Roquette had exhibited proofs of amendment, should be put in a condition of provisional liberty, but on this understanding, that at the first serious transgression, it should be legal to recall them on a ministerial order, without any judicial formality, and at the simple request of the Society of Patronage.

This measure has produced the most satisfactory effects. In consequence of it, places have been more easily obtained, employers less backward, and apprentices more submissive. It also enables us to repress certain blameworthy actions which unhappily elude the authority of magistrates and public punishment. For instance, with us, drunkenness is no excuse when it leads to the commission of an act declared culpable by the law, but in itself it is not considered an offence; and there are many other acts which outrage morality, but yet are unpunishable by laws.

Who but can feel, after this simple explanation, the salutary influence which the system of provisional liberty might exercise over adult criminals, instead of absolute pardons which those who profit by them too frequently abuse.

The following is what we thought expedient to say on this subject, in a work published by us in 1838, on the penitentiary system.

"The work of reform will not be complete till we can assure to the discharged prisoner a means of turning his good intentions to account, and can offer sufficient guaranties to those persons who consent to employ him.

The number of individuals, who have been liberated and have again relapsed, is considerable; but we could hardly expect it should be otherwise. In the present state of the law, the transition from restraint to freedom is too abrupt; and if we desire that the newly-freed man should persevere in the good resolutions which he has adopted, he must make a trial of liberty under certain restrictions.

Provisional freedom, substituted in certain cases for absolute pardon, can alone furnish a hope of solving a problem hitherto considered insoluble. It is, in fact, the sole means of arriving at a composition between the unhappy, but legitimate mistrust of society, and the necessity of procuring employment for those with whom misery and need are sufficient to annul the effects of the best reformatory system, and who, despite amelioration acquired with labor, will be infallibly thrown back on crime by the rejection of society, if they can not find means to support existence."

England has already adopted this measure; but we have reason to fear that up to the present time, its application has not been made with all the precautions which might be desirable.

We have been made acquainted with a similar project, elaborated with the greatest care, which is to be submitted to the approbation of the legislature in Belgium, and from which there is reason to expect the happiest results.

The Society of Patronage which had already done so much to improve the moral condition of young detainees, did not consider its task as yet accomplished; it procured the nomination of a commission in order to collect all the documents calcu-

lated to produce a still more satisfactory state of things. The members of the society were pleased to request us to make part of this commission; and from the beginning, all those who composed it, when seeking the means of reforming juvenile offenders, were unanimous in the choice of agriculture. Indeed, if it is necessary as we have above hinted, to employ in field labor orphans without family or means of support, how much more necessary still, is a country life for those who have already given way before the evil influences which accompany a residence in large towns.

But as soon as the commission determined to pass from theory to practice, and to arrange a plan for an agricultural colony, their embarrassment commenced, and they felt that they were not prepared with sufficient knowledge on the subject. They commissioned two of their members to study on the spot, the Colonies of Belgium and Holland, and they selected for this purpose, the late lamented Leon Faucher and myself.

This took place about eighteen years ago. It was known that the experiments made in the countries above mentioned had not been successful. The Dutch colonies were dragging on a languishing existence, and making enormous sacrifices for a very indifferent return; and the Belgian colonies exhibited still more disastrous results. So we did not proceed to these countries to look for models, but we were in hopes to learn some useful lessons. We are no less indebted to him who indicates hidden rocks, than to him who points out the safe channel.

From the first we were aware of an important fact. All the colonies had been established on heaths, or on barren land. The founders seemed to have had it more at heart, to bring the land into cultivation than to win the worker over to the love of labor. This idea of the reclaiming the soil by the arms hitherto useless, employed in colonies, we acknowledge to be very seductive, and at first sight to appear very just; the culture of a stubborn soil by such means presents an appropriate penal picture; it makes men useful whose lives hitherto have inflicted only trouble or danger on the State, and on whom it is but reasonable to impose the severest labor. We should have nothing to oppose to this theory, if the question merely concerned men who have merited severe punishment, and if the colonies of which we speak had their punishment alone in view; but it seems to be forgotten that their principal object is the moral transformation of the unhappy beings whom they receive.

We must expect failure, if we entrust bad land to ill-disposed laborers; and we have no hesitation in believing, that the sterility of the soil has been the chief cause of the ill success of the colonies of Belgium and Holland.

In order to create the habit and relish of labor, in those whom dissipation, idleness or laziness has reduced to utter destitution, it is essential that this labor should, at least, offer some attraction; and that prompt and satisfactory results should recompense and encourage their ill-sustained efforts. And how often may we not apply these considerations which are true as far as adults are concerned, with still more justice to the child whose wandering imagination can neither foresee nor patiently wait, whose ardor so easily roused is as easily depressed, and whose entire future is limited by 'to-morrow!'

"To deserve to be sent here," said a Belgian colonist to me one day, with an accent of despair, "one need have killed his father and mother; there is not a blade of grass which has not cost a drop of sweat." Now does any one really believe that it is by exciting repugnance, such hatred, we can hope to win over long resisting, obstinate natures to the love of labor?

The administration seems to approve the opinions we have just now advanced, and we have taken care not to overlook so important a testimony. The government has lately resolved to found penal colonies in Corsica for adults; and to

much praise can not be given to such a measure. It has already initiated this useful project, and we have seen, with very lively satisfaction, that it has selected lands remarkable for their fertility, for an experiment so worthy of public attention.

To return to our researches in Belgium and Holland. We were not long in confirming our previous opinion, that we had nothing to learn from the establishments of these countries. M. Leon Faucher was obliged to return to Paris, and I was left alone to continue the search. This was to terminate at Hamburg, where I do not hesitate to say that I found the solution of the problem which we had in charge to study. It was near the village of Horn, in a fertile and picturesque country, and on the slope of an eminence which overlooks the fine valley of the Elbe and the Bill, that I had occasion to visit the reformatory school called the *Rauhen Haus*.^{*} I will not pause to describe this new celebrated establishment, and which, since my visit, has received considerable additions, I will content myself with pointing out its principal features.

It was founded toward the end of 1833, by the excellent M. Wichern, to receive young children whom vicious habits were threatening to pervert, or had already perverted. The skillful founder had sought the means of reform in the "*esprit de famille*." He endeavored to excite in these young hearts, those sweet and healthy emotions which home influence calls forth and which had never been felt, or had been forgotten by these wretched children.

The colonists were divided into groups of twelve, each group being called a family. This title was justified by the bond of intimate affection and kindness which had been established among its members. To each of these families was appointed a chief, or rather guide, whom the children called their father. Each family inhabited a separate little house, constructed by the hands of its own members, and divided from the neighboring one by gardens or orchards. Four existed at the period of my visit; they formed as it were, a little hamlet, and had no communication with each other but such as was required by the exigencies of the institution.

The discipline of the colony was firm and severe, and yet we are bound to say, tempered by paternal tenderness. Moral reforms was its object; energetic, persevering labor, and at the same time, a profoundly religious education were its means. Daily memoranda recorded the conduct of each child, his progress, or his backslidings; the affectionate solicitude of the chiefs did not interfere with the rigor, still sometimes necessary, of a system which was essentially correctional, and no one but an eye witness can imagine the depth of the sympathy which bound these poor pupils to the parent colony, after they had become honest members of society.

Thus we see that the basis on which the colony of Horn was established, and to which it owes its wonderful success, is the family system.

It was not the first time that this excellent means of reformation had been employed, and in every instance it had been followed by happy results. The agricultural and reformatory school founded in 1788 by the Philanthropic Society in London, had successfully adopted the same organization; and on going back a space of nearly fifty years to that institution, incomplete, doubtless, but admirably conceived, we find singular and striking analogies with the establishment of Horn. The Swiss colonies which have survived and prospered, had also effected the division of their pupils into small distinct groups. They had even extended farther the resemblance to the real family, by placing at the head of each group, a female housekeeper along with the chief; and, moreover, they had no hesitation in ad-

^{*} A particular account of the *Rauhen Haus*, or Redemption Institute, of M. Wichern, at Horn, near Hamburg may be seen in *Barnard's National Education in Europe*. H. Cowper-Swain & Co., Philadelphia.

mitting children of both sexes. They report that this arrangement was not attended with any inconvenience.

The examination of the establishment of Horn, and the excellent results which the institution has produced, furnished us with the information we were seeking; and we could no longer entertain a doubt as to the efficacy of the principle which had presided at its formation. Division into families then, it appears, should be the fundamental principle of every penal and reformatory colony; and we are happy to see that this conviction, which takes stronger hold on our judgment from day to day, is making increased progress among our public writers. Unhappily, up to the present hour, these convictions have scarcely advanced beyond theory, so far as France is concerned.

In December, 1849, M. Corne, acting organ of a commission named by the legislative assembly, "looked on a division of the children into small groups as the most certain element of their moral regeneration." Those men, in the different states of Europe, who have given themselves to the study of these questions all profess the same opinion.*

The division into families renders superintendence, at once, more easy, more active, and more zealous; more easy, because it extends over but a small number; more active, because it makes all the responsibility rest on the head of one person only, whose authority is well defined, and whose duties are exactly prescribed; more zealous, because it produces in the minds of the superintendents, sentiments of sympathy and benevolence, under the influence of this responsibility, and of a life spent in common with their charge. The influence of the division into families is not less salutary for the young colonists; the authority exercised being neither imperious nor oppressive; they become attached on their part to the master who loves them, and whom they learn to regard as a confidant and a friend; they allow themselves more easily to be influenced and convinced, and, while discipline loses none of its vigor, education finds in this mutual affection a lever of incalculable power.

Besides, shall we count as nothing, that not only harmless but salutary emulation, which a multiplicity of families excites? In a large establishment, in the midst of a numerous population, common interests are few and weak, unless unhappily an *esprit de corps* should arise among the colonists, inspired by a feeling of opposition to their chiefs. But that spirit of rivalry which springs up between the different families, produces nothing but advantages, and creates energy only for good.

It has been objected that the construction of isolated buildings costs more than a general one, and that too large a staff of officers is required for the application of the system. A preference has consequently been generally given to old houses; so that, in some degree, the stones have made the law, rendering the execution of the programme sketched out, subservient to the locality. Thus it has frequently failed in its most essential parts.

In our times, an unhappy tendency prevails to economise in the salary of officers when the education of children is concerned. Moral force can only be efficacious when we grasp as it were, body to body, heart to heart, intelligence to intelligence, him whom we wish to gain over to the love of good.

We must engage in *single combat*, so to speak, and that such great efforts are necessary we should not wonder since we must acknowledge, that with all of us in a greater or less degree, our natural tendencies incline to evil. If in point of edu-

* See, as regards public men in England, besides the testimony of Lord Brougham cited before, the opinion which he expressed in so remarkable a manner in the House of Lords on the 11th of May, 1854. See, also, the speech of M. Adderley in the House of Commons on the 1st of August, 1853.

cation we have gained but little up to this hour, it is because we have substituted disciplinary for moral action. We may easily manœuvre a regiment by the word of command, a crew of sailors by the blasts of a whistle, but these means would ill suffice to render them moral agents.

The German Reviews have blamed the directors of Mettray, for having raised the number of children composing a family to forty, and then entrusted its guardianship to one sole chief; in some respects they are quite right. They object that Providence has not, in the order of nature, permitted a family to attain to so high a number, although the heart of the father, and above all, that of the mother, which may justly be called the masterpiece of nature, watch over the education of the children. Those persons who do not reckon in the account, the moral results obtained at Mettray, find its system of education even now too costly; though, of course, by augmenting the number of officers, still more considerable expenditure must be incurred. We must, unhappily, make concessions to public opinion, however blind it may be in some cases. There are but few who comprehend this great truth, that in the matter of political, and much more, Christian economy, there are profits which ruin, as there are losses which enrich.

After my visit to Horn I had no need to prolong my journey. The studies of a life had convinced me that agricultural occupations, united with a good moral and religious education, could alone rescue from a life of disorder and evil deeds, youth already engaged in a career of vice. The study of the Dutch and Belgian institutions had shown me that a sterile soil can produce none but sterile works; the examination of the establishment founded by M. Wichern had taught me that 'the family' system was the path of safety for the regeneration of (evil) man. Nothing remained now but to set to work.

My own strength doubtless, would not have sufficed for such an enterprise, but Providence came to my aid, in renewing my acquaintance with an old school-fellow, M. le Vicomte de Courteilles. He adopted my views, promised his services, and went so far as to offer his estates upon which to found the institution we had resolved to establish together.

We did not conceal from ourselves, when putting our hands to the work, that the care of forming men's minds, and turning them from evil to good, should not be entrusted to the first assistants that came to hand. This important ministry requires trained minds, a sincere self-devotion, and a morality above suspicion. There is with us no lack of ideas, but rather of men capable of putting them in practice, especially when these ideas are of serious import.

Being convinced of this truth, we resolved to establish, in connection with the colony, even before a single child had been intrusted to us, a special school, where youths of respectable standing, and of a truly Christian spirit, might be trained to become, by and by, the chiefs of our families.

It is to this foundation that we must attribute the prosperity of Mettray. We shall be excused, we trust, for not having passed it over in silence. This school has been daily improving since its institution, and among the excellent pupils which are sent forth from it every year, some, engaged with ourselves, perpetuate the good traditions of the colony; others spread them abroad, and being sought for by charitable institutions, they render valuable services to establishments similar to our own.

It was with the aid of such auxiliaries that Mettray was founded. On the 22d of January, 1840, it received its first inmates.

Between that and the present date, more than fifteen years have past. Many successful efforts have been made during this period; much progress has been effected; many establishments have been founded, which are now prosperous, and spread blessings around them. None can sympathise more warmly than we

do, in the hopes which the development of agricultural colonies appointed to receive orphans and foundlings, is calculated to call forth.

Let us trace in a few words, the history of that branch of legislation which regulates these institutions, and indicate the principal traits, at least, of the important act of the 4th of August, 1850.

Before speaking of this law, we must mention the instructions issued on the 17th of February, 1847, which confided the patronage of liberated detainees to the municipal authorities, and raised some rather complicated questions into the discussion of which it is not here possible for us to enter.

The law of the 5th of August is of paramount importance; it is in some sort the charter of penal agricultural colonies. It embraces in its regulations, young children detained for correction, by desire of the father,* children sentenced for crimes and offences, and, finally, children acquitted by the application of Article 63 of the Code Napoleon. It proclaims the necessity of subjecting all to a moral, religious, and professional education.

Two principles pervade this law, principles to whose profound wisdom we can not pay too much respect, and from which we can not depart without compromising those cherished interests which it is intended to protect. We find them in the articles 3, 5, and 10.

The first consists in the employment of young detainees in the agricultural labor and the principal branches of industry connected with it.

The second proclaims the frank and cordial adoption of the co-operation of private establishments. The law reserves to these last a delay of five years, during which they can prepare and perfect the founding of penal colonies.

It is only in the event of the insufficiency of private establishments, that State colonies are to be founded, as is expressed in the last paragraph of Article 10. "If the total number of young detainees can not be placed in private establishments at the expiration of five years, they shall be provided for by the foundation of reformatory colonies, at the expense of the state."

The system adopted by law, thus depends on the existence of private colonies; it is from these colonies that the state demands the moral education of the young pupils whose guardianship it has undertaken. In itself it has no desire but to complete them, or supply their insufficiency if such should exist.

This large and truly liberal spirit of the laws was no less manifest in the short discussion to which it gave rise. A Deputy had expressed his opinion that the state ought not to confide to any (private) person, the education and reformation of young detainees, and that the law should authorize none but public establishments. The commission hastened to protest against such a system.

'The Law encourages charity,' was its answer; 'it recognises its power, and hopes much from its influence.' On the other hand, the government eagerly forwards its views; and it was on the formal proposition of M, le Ministre de l'Interieur, that the assembly raised, to five years, the delay accorded for the operation of private charity, for which two years only had been asked by the commission.

The course taken by the administration merits the greatest praise. To appeal in this manner to the knowledge and co-operation of all, shews a sincere desire to provide a happy future for the country. Oxenstiern has said, '*On the good training of youth, depends the prosperity of the state.*'

It must be acknowledged that education is a difficult and complex undertaking; perhaps the most difficult of all. It is a problem capable of receiving different solutions; and it has this peculiarity, that every one of these solutions is the best

* The law of France empowers a parent to send (under certain conditions) an intractable child to prison.—Ed.

in some particular case. The meditations, the studies, and the experience of a great number of peculiarly gifted men, and the trial of many different methods, will not be found superfluous in fructifying this greatest of all sciences, to produce a race of good men.'

At the same time that the administration was making its appeal to the devotedness of individuals, and calling on them to come to its aid in this great work of penitentiary reform, of which the education of young detainees may be considered as the starting point, it was also itself at work on this; and co-operation was the more desirable, inasmuch as the private establishments were far from able to contain all the children of this class, whose number is ever on the increase; we shall have occasion to return to this subject. An agricultural colony was then annexed to each of the maisons centrales of Loos, Gaillon, Fontevrault, and Clairvaux. These colonies have realised all the good that was expected from them.

While a system calculated to reform young detainees was thus being established in France, either by administrative action or the intervention of the legislature, the public authorities of England were giving the most serious attention to these important questions. The wound which, with our neighbors, we sought to heal, was no less deep than that whose enlargement we were striving to prevent; and that country where so many improvements have been effected, could not hesitate to follow in the path upon which we had entered.

A law of recent date, and which was passed on the 10th of August, 1854, authorises and even calls upon individuals to found agricultural colonies. It seeks to turn to use, with more steadiness and unity of effort than has hitherto been done, those private institutions which have been founded for this object, and authorises the Minister for the Home Department to confer on these establishments which after inspection are judged worthy thereof, the title, *Reformatory School*.

We do not feel it necessary to enter on a very close examination of this act, framed by the way under the influence of French legislation; but one of the clauses which it contains, appears so conformable to equity, and so fit for imitation, that we can not pass it over in silence: we speak of the pecuniary responsibility which it imposes on the family of the delinquent.

The statesmen of 'practical' England have considered that it was not just to exonerate parents from the burdens imposed on them by the laws of nature, especially in those cases where the bad conduct of the child, as is only too often the case, is the result of the bad example of the father.

Thus the English, like the Belgic legislature, has decided that a sum not exceeding five shillings per week may be exacted by way of fine from the family of the young delinquent during the period of his detention.

Nothing can be better adapted than such a measure, to disappoint those guilty calculations which sometimes induce unnatural parents to violate the most sacred of all human duties.

The increase in the number of young offenders in France ought to make us desire more than ever, the application of this measure which we have thought it our duty to point out.

But let us conclude what we have to say concerning the French law.

This law appropriates (Art. 2) special and distinct quarters in our jails to the special reception of young detainees of every class—it creates two orders of reformatory establishments; penitential colonies for the special reception of young delinquents acquitted under article 66, but intrusted to administrative guardianship (Art. 4 and 5) and correctional colonies (Art. 10) established by the state either in France or in Algiers, for young offenders condemned to an imprisonment of more than two years, and also for young detainees, from reformatory colonies, who may have been declared insubordinate.

Let us be allowed here to express our regret that by an interpretation little in accordance perhaps with the general spirit of the law, government has authorised the reception in the same colonies, of young detainees condemned under Art. 67 of the penal code, to an imprisonment of more than six months, and not exceeding two years, with children declared not guilty, and acquitted under Article 66. This confusion which, at first sight, seems of no importance, always produces inconveniences of more than one kind. In the first place, it perplexes the comprehension of the acquitted young detainee, in whose understanding it upsets all notion of justice; he is astonished that the law, while declaring him innocent, imposes on him a detention of four or five years, while it retains, generally for a very short period only, him whom it recognises as culpable. We will only add, that this tends to maintain in the public mind, as in the minds of those who are eventually called on to use the labor of the liberated convict, prejudices very hurtful to his interest.

The active administration, it is true, has done all in its power to counteract that which we must be permitted to call a vice of the law. The magistrates convinced of the evil of mingling in the same place, children of different degrees of depravity, rarely sentence under Art. 67 of the penal code. On the 31st of December, 1852, the number of young detainees amounted to 6,443, and of this number, 197 only were convicted under articles 67 and 69.

In stating so high the number of young criminals, which in 1837 was only 1,493, we can not dissemble the melancholy feelings with which we must necessarily write such a revelation.

But let us take comfort: 'this progression,' as M. the Minister of the Interior says in his last report, 'does not imply a corresponding increase in juvenile crime. The existence of penitentiary establishments intended for the young, encourages and multiplies decisions from which tribunals would have recoiled at an epoch when their life in a prison exposed the young detainees to intimacies and influences worse than those outside its walls.'

In concluding our review of the laws which exercise so great an influence over agricultural colonies, we must direct public attention to one measure which has hitherto escaped notice, notwithstanding its great importance.

The legislator while adopting the principle of agricultural colonies for young convicts, ought to have equally taken into account those children whose vicious inclinations, or obstinate characters stubbornly resist all instruction, all efforts of domestic discipline, and who, without having been guilty of an infraction of the penal laws, do not the less deserve severe punishment. We speak of children detained at the request of the father, under articles 375 and 376 of the Civil Code.

If we wish to achieve a reform as complete as it possibly can be, we should come to the aid of youth whatever be its social position, and combat its evil propensities wherever they manifest themselves.

In France, detention under the head of *correction paternelle* is the only means of repressing the transgressions of youth. But Paris alone offers, and there but in an insufficient manner, a house for the reception of such children, which holds out some guarantee to the heads of families.

In the provinces there exists no establishment of this kind. Children under age, whom their parents might wish to correct by withdrawing them from the evil counsels and evil examples which are perverting them, would there be mixed pell-mell with the suspected and even the convicted; thus they would be exposed to greater dangers than those from which it is wished to guard them. What father of a family would venture to give to his son, for companions, malefactors and others, subjected to penal treatment.

The inexpediency of resorting to this mode of correction is so fully recognised,

that there is no family in easy circumstances, who would not reject such a means; and there is scarcely even a poor but honest family, who would not hesitate to use it. Is it not indeed to be feared that he who had once been obliged to pass the threshold of infamy, would regard himself as disgraced forever?

Rich families frequently send on long journeys and at great expense, sons of whom they have cause to complain; but this plan has often only the effect of substituting one kind of dissipation for another. By this course studies are suspended; the habit of application is lost; the young people meet abroad the temptations from which they were sought to be rescued at home; and they yield to them with the less reserve, as they feel themselves now free from all surveillance; they begin to entertain ideas of independence and insubordination; and after having brought trouble into their families, they, later in life, introduce disorder into the state.

The legislator has imagined that he could remedy the deplorable state of things which we have just described by authorising the transmission of children from the parental jurisdiction to the agricultural colonies, but we fear that in this instance he has not discovered the true remedy.

By the terms of the Articles 375 and 376 of the Civil Code, a child under 16 years of age may be detained one month, and the youth from 16 to 21 years old, six months. We must then, if we wish to produce a salutary effect upon the mind of the young offender in so short time, employ a species of discipline which will punish fast, if we may be allowed such an expression.

Besides, the discipline of reformatory colonies to which young criminals are for a long time subjected, can scarcely present a sufficiently repressive character; the children in these establishments enjoy a certain degree of liberty; field labor would appear, especially to boys, much to be preferred to the study of Latin, for which the greater part entertain a profound aversion. Mettray affords, at the present time, a case in point. One of our colonists not being able to obtain from his parents permission to leave school, did not hesitate to set the building on fire. Moreover, this state of mixed society exposes the children to form connections which would sadly compromise their future prospects in the world of the higher classes.

We do not hesitate to say, that solitary confinement only can act with efficacy in such cases. It is necessary to have witnessed its effects in order to form a correct idea of the happy influence which it obtains over the character. A complete transformation is effected in the individual submitted to its operation. As he can not procure either indulgence or amusements, nothing is at work to remove from his mind the exhortations and counsels he has received. Reflection is perpetually holding before his eyes the picture of his past life. In solitude there is no place for pride, for self-love. The child is obliged, in his own despite, to enter into himself; he no longer blushes for yielding to the promptings of his conscience, which has been so justly called the 'voice of God.' Little by little, he becomes accessible to religious sentiments; labor now becomes an occupation for him, and very soon a pleasure; he gives himself up to it with ardor; and that which he has hitherto considered as a painful task, becomes a comfort, even a necessity, so that the greatest punishment that can be inflicted on him is to deprive him of employment.

The short period of his detention dissipates whatever fears the solitary system may excite in the minds of some individuals.

I have been enabled to witness these effects of solitary confinement, which I have just described, at Mettray, where children under paternal correction have been sent for some time past. A penitentiary constructed under the direction of M. Blouet, architect, entirely on the model of that of Philadelphia, is now specially set apart for this class of individuals.

The chapel is so constructed that the children can assist at the divine office without being able to see each other. Every boy has two cells at his disposal; one in which he sleeps, the other in which he is occupied, either in manual labor or in his own improvement. The vicinity of the Lyce of Tours enables us to procure for the children, such professors as parents in easy circumstances would wish to give them. In this way their studies are not interrupted, and the walks* afford healthful exercise. All these advantages, which we have been enabled to realize at considerable sacrifices, can not be obtained in the greater number of private colonies. Mettray is consequently an exception, and, elsewhere, the inconveniences we have pointed out, exist in full force. Such is the last objection we will allow ourselves to make to the law of 1850, of whose wise regulations in the main, as we said before, we can not speak with sufficient praise.

We have dwelt on the penitential colonies, and on the law which ratifies their existence, because they appear to interest us as much in their agricultural as in their industrial relations. To improve the laborer by the land, and to improve the land by the laborer; such is the immense advantage we derive from these institutions.

The reformatory colonies in France are twenty-three in number. They are subdivided into private colonies and colonies of the state."

To this admirable account we append a few extracts from a speech made by M. Demetz, at a banquet given to him at Birmingham, in 1855, by the promoters of the reformatory movement in England.

"The military discipline adopted at Mettray is this: the lads wear a uniform, and they march to and from their work, their lessons, and their meals with the precision of soldiers, and to the sound of a trumpet and drum. But, as the sound of the trumpet and the drum lead men on to perform acts of heroism, and to surmount the greatest difficulties, may it not reasonably be employed with the same object at a reformatory school, where, in resisting temptation and conquering vicious habits, true heroism is displayed, and a marvelous power of overcoming difficulties must be called forth? A striking proof of the hold the system had obtained over the minds of the boys was given at the time of the revolution of 1848. France was then, from one end of the country to the other, in a state of anarchy, and all the government schools were in rebellion. At Mettray, without walls, without coercion, there was not a sign of insubordination; not a single child attempted to run away. It was in allusion to the absence of walls of M. le Baron de la Croese, Secrétaire du Sénat, observed, 'Here is a wonderful prison, where there is no key, but the *clefs des champs*! If your children remain captive, it is proved you have discovered the key of their hearts.' During the revolution, a band of workmen came to Mettray with flags flying and trumpets sounding, and, meeting the youths returning tired from field labor, their pick-axes on their shoulders, thus addressed them:—'My boys, do not be such fools as to work any longer. Bread is plentiful; it is ready for you without labor.' The *chef* who was conducting the lads, and who behaved with the greatest calmness and tact, immediately cried, 'Halt! form in line.' The lads, being accustomed to march like soldiers, immediately formed. The *chef* then stepped forward and said to the men, 'My friends, you have learned to labor; you have a right to rest; but leave these lads; let them learn now, and when their turn comes they may rest as you do.' The men gave way, the youths marched home, and Mettray was saved—saved, as I believe, by our habit of military discipline. Had those lads been walking homewards without rule, like a flock of sheep, the men would have got among them, carried away one or two, and

* *Promenoirs*. Probably walks in covered galleries or in the open air with walls on each side.—En.

the rest would have followed; but, drawn up in line, they met the attack in one body, and thus it was repelled."

The London Times, in an account of M. Demetz's visit to the Philanthropic Society's Farm School, at Red Hill, the principal English Reformatory school, remarks:—His path has been difficult, and his obstacles numerous, but he has experienced such proofs of his success that he must feel repaid for all his labors and sacrifices. In such incidents as the following he finds his true recompense. A *colon* of Mettray, who has like so many of his companions become a soldier, was decorated on the field of battle for some act of bravery with the Cross of the Legion of Honor. This gift when conferred upon a person in humble life is accompanied by an annual pension of 200 francs. The soldier on receiving his decoration immediately sent 100 francs to Mettray.

M. Demetz being present on some occasion when a troop of soldiers were drawn up in line, one of them stepped from the ranks and flung his arms round his neck. The man had been a *colon* at Mettray, and, unmindful of spectators, thus gave way to the impulse of gratitude and affection.

We think the fact we are about to relate is even more striking; it bears noble testimony to the exalted spirit which animates the Institution:—

"The other day there was too much reason to believe that certain pecuniary support would be withdrawn in consequence of the necessities of the war, to such an extent that the establishment must be wound up, and the further prosecution of it abandoned; whereupon the different *employes*, a body of young men from twenty-one to thirty-five years of age, not helpless creatures without resources, to whom half a loaf would be better than no bread, but men of tried ability and vigor, who could at any time command more remunerative employment elsewhere;—I say these young men waited on M. Demetz in a body, and offered to continue their services at half their salaries."

But this was not all. The *colons*, too, offered to add to their already long hours of labor, that their extra earnings might help to meet the difficulty. "They would do any thing," said both masters and wards, "rather than that Mettray should fall." God grant it never may!

Perhaps the greatest proof of the success of Mettray is the fact that the *colons* are proud of having been there. They are never abandoned, and may return if out of employment, or in sickness, sure of a hospitable reception provided only they are behaving well.

MM. Demetz and de Courteilles wished that the youths should consider Mettray in the light of a parent, and, in order to bind her children more firmly to herself, established, in 1843, an association, of which they themselves were the presidents. It is called the *Association des Fondateurs, Chefs et Sous-Chefs de la Colonie de Mettray*, and is composed of the *directeurs* as *presidents*, officers as *dignitaires*, and *colons* as *titulaires*. Any *colon* is eligible for admission who is twenty years of age, and whose conduct has been irreproachable for two years after leaving the colony. They are then presented with a diploma, which is printed on parchment, bearing the signatures of the president, secretary, and owner. At the same time they receive the symbolic ring of the association, with this device, among others,
"Logants passe tout."

XVII. EDUCATIONAL MOVEMENTS AND MISCELLANY.

BAVARIA.

In the *Höhere Bürgerschule* for Jan. 1856, edited by Dr. Vogel and Herr Korner, there appears a Statement of the Educational Establishments of Bavaria, condensed from a complete statistical view of their condition in 1851-2, by Dr. von Hermann. From this, the following facts are gleaned.

TABLE I, is an account of the ACADEMY OF SCIENCE, which numbers 51 ordinary and extraordinary members. Its means are 12,057fl. from a Government appropriation, and 3,633 from a special reserved fund. A florin = 32 cents.

TABLE II. THE GENERAL CONSERVATORIUM OF SCIENTIFIC COLLECTIONS embraces 12 distinct collections, viz.: the Cabinet of Coins; the Antiquarium; the Observatory and Meteorological Institutes; Chemical Laboratory; Mineralogical, Geological, Zoological, and Paleontological Collections; a Botanical Garden, and an Anatomical Institution. The income of the Conservatorium of 48,116fl. is derived from Government appropriations.

TABLE III. PUBLIC LIBRARIES.—The Royal Library in Munich, in addition to 22,000 manuscripts, has 800,000 volumes; the University Library in Munich, 147,541 volumes; that in Würzburg, 100,000 volumes; that in Erlangen, 140,000 volumes. The public libraries (over 24 in number) in different departments have together 1,861,556 volumes and 33,219 MSS., not including the libraries of the Royal Ministers, the Gymnasias, &c.

TABLE IV. THE ACADEMY OF PAINTING numbers beside, 1 Director and 3 *Docenten*, 10 Professors, 231 Pupils; of whom, 101 are Bavarians, beside 53 honorary and corresponding members, and 19 Government Pensioners. Its income is 53,524fl.

TABLE V. THE CONSERVATORIUM OF MUSIC has 1 Director and 14 Teachers, 54 male and 40 female Pupils, with an income of 8,119fl.

TABLES VI-X, relate to the UNIVERSITIES. In 1852, Munich numbered 51 ordinary, 17 extraordinary Professors, and 30 Privat-Doctents. Würzburg had 33 ordinary, 17 extraordinary Professors, and 3 Docents. Erlangen had 28 ordinary, 17 extraordinary Professors, and 12 Docents. The most graduation in the three universities is in the medicinal faculty, then in the philosophical, juridical, and theological. The receipts of the universities were 409,820fl.; the expenses 366,584fl.

TABLE XI, distinguishes the RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS of the students. In 1851-2, in the Lyceas and Universities, there were 2,895 Catholics; of whom, 744 were theologians; 782 Protestants; of whom, 167 were theologians; 3 Reformed, 4 Greeks, 30 Jews, and 5 Mohammedans.

TABLE XII. In 1851-2, the seven LYCEA numbered 77 teachers, with 650 candidates. Their income is 96,760fl.; their expenses 76,056.

TABLES XIII-XVI, give the Statistics of GYMNASIA and LATIN SCHOOLS. In all (26) the gymnasia, during 1851-2, 1170 scholars applied for admission to the under

class, of whom, 917 were received; 808 applied for admission to the upper class, of whom, 789 passed the examination. The 60 Royal Latin Schools numbered 462 teachers, 7,405 pupils.

TABLES XVII-XXXIII, contain the Statistics of SPECIAL SCHOOLS. 1. The Forestry School, at Aschaffenberg. 2. The Royal Page Corps, (16 teachers and 24 pupils.) 3. The Royal Cadet Corps, (39 teachers and 142 pupils.) 4. The Central Agricultural School, at Schleisheim, (receipts, 6,301fl.; expenses, 16,716fl.) 5. The Farm School, at Triesdorf. 6. The three Polytechnic Schools, at Munich, Nuremberg, and Augsburg, with 33 teachers, 226 scholars. 7. The 26 Agricultural and Trade Schools, with 232 teachers and 2549 scholars.—Receipts, 152,971fl.; expenses, 149,504. 8. The Commercial School, in Nuremberg, with 392 scholars.—Receipts, 9,614fl.; expenses, 10,126fl. 9. The Central Veterinary School, in Munich, with 18 teachers, 143 pupils.—Receipts, 18,131fl.; expenses, 17,203fl. 10. The Architectural School, in Munich; 9 teachers, 143 pupils. Receipts and expenses, 2,596fl. 11. The three Schools of Midwifery, with 11 teachers and assistants, 132 scholars.—Receipts, 5,549fl.; expenses, 3,345fl. 12. The nine Deaf and Dumb Institutions, with 21 teachers and 226 pupils.—Receipts, 33,424fl.; expenses, 29,464fl. 13. Blind Institution, at Munich; 17 teachers, 66 pupils.—Receipts, 14,784fl.; expenses, 13,062fl. 14. Institution for Idiotic Children, in Munich; 3 teachers and 15 scholars.—Receipts, 5,321fl.; expenses, 4,917fl. 15. Ten Normal Schools, with 78 teachers and 518 pupils; of whom, 347 Catholic, 164 Protestant, and 7 Jewish.

TABLES XXXIV-XLII. GERMAN OR COMMON SCHOOLS.—7,113 schools; of which, 4,810 are Catholic, 2,150 Protestant, and 163 Jewish.—8,622 male teachers, 318 female teachers.—Male scholars week days, 284,788; female do., 290,426: male scholars Sundays, 178,713; female do., 192,348.—Receipts, 2,912,502fl.; expenses, 2,299,499fl.

TABLES XLIII-LI. INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS, 1,550 in number; of which, 1,476 are public, 74 private; 676 independent, 874 united with other establishments; 11,033 male scholars and 58,028 female scholars, with 1,965 teachers, 1,597 of whom are female.—Receipts, 42,626fl.; expenses, 42,392fl.

TABLES LII-LX. DRAWING SCHOOLS, 261 in number; of which, 219 public, 42 private; 121 independent; 140 united with other institutions; 8,895 male, 1,078 female scholars; 247 male and 19 female teachers.—Receipts, 11,654fl.

TABLE LXI. INFANT SCHOOLS.—58 private and 33 public, with 6,796 pupils; of whom, 2,740 are gratuitously received.

TABLES LXII-LXX. CONVENT AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, 143 in number; with 872 teachers and 6,853 scholars.

FRANCE.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR MILITARY OFFICERS.

In France there are, 1. A general staff corps; 2. Particular staff-corps. The first consists of 30 colonels, 30 lieutenant-colonels, 100 majors, 300 captains, 100 lieutenants. The colonels and lieutenant-colonels are employed as chiefs of the staff in the military districts, and in the divisions of the army in the field; and, as, together with the other ranks, *aides-de-camp* to the emperor, the princes, the ministers of war, and the marshals. The majors and captains are usually *aides* to general officers, who must select *aides* exclusively from the staff-corps; they belong to *corps-d'armée* and divisions of men, whether at home or abroad, as distinguished from the particular staff-corps attached to certain stations. They

are also employed on foreign embassies and diplomatic missions, and in the War Office. The lieutenants of the staff are still learners. On attaining that rank, they are attached to infantry and cavalry regiments for two years each, and then for one year, to artillery and engineers; and, it is not till after this long probation that they are promoted to captaincies, and discharge what we should call staff duties.

The particular staff-corps are three: those belonging to military stations at home and abroad, which they command and administer; and those belonging to the artillery and to the engineers.

The existing military colleges were special; that at Saumur was devoted to cavalry; that at St. Cyr to infantry and cavalry; that at Metz to artillery and engineers, and were not, therefore, thought suitable to a service which required instruction, not in one only, but in all these branches. Hence the foundation of the *Ecole d'Application d'Etat-major* at Paris, by Gouvion St. Cyr.

The school at Saumur is a training-school for cavalry instructors, not for cavalry officers generally, who are at St. Cyr, with the infantry. These cavalry instructors are commissioned and non-commissioned officers, detached from their regiments for the time (two years) they spend at the school. They carry back to their regiments a uniform system of riding, and of cavalry exercises. The school at St. Cyr is not for infantry alone, but for cavalry also. The students, according to their position in the class-list of the out-going examination (*examen de sortie*), take their choice of infantry or cavalry.

The Polytechnic is one of the feeders of the staff-school. All admissions to the Polytechnic are by open competition yearly. Any young Frenchman, above 16 and under 20, in good health, may compete. For non-commissioned officers and privates, of two years' actual service, the age is extended to 25. The trial consists in written compositions, and two oral examinations. By the compositions and the first oral examination the inferior candidates are weeded out: those that remain are submitted to a second oral examination, which determines the merit of those who undergo it at any one time and place. These examinations are conducted by a Board of Examiners in Paris and the chief towns. A programme issued by the Minister of War each year indicates the subjects (all of which are equally obligatory, and failure in any one constitutes ineligibility), the times, and places of the examinations. After the examiners have finished their circuit, another Board, presided over by the Commandant of the Polytechnic, draw up, in order of merit, from the reports furnished them, a list of admissibles. The actual admission is by the Minister of War, who calculates the number of vacancies in the school as one-tenth more than the probable number of appointments to the public service from the school during the ensuing year. The annual charge for board is 1000 francs, but free exhibitions and semi-free exhibitions are given to those whose means are insufficient, and who are recommended by the municipal authorities of their locality, and by the prefect. The duration of residence is two years. There are two competitive examinations, one for the students of the first year before admission into the second year's residence, and another (*examen de sortie*) at the close of the course, before admission into the public service. The three students at the head of the list go to the staff-school: the remaining, according to their position in the class-list, make their selection among the vacancies in the artillery and engineer-school, the civil engineer service (*ponts et chaussées*), the naval arsenals, and other public offices. Those who, from being low down the list, cannot obtain places in the service of their choice, may be commissioned in the line, but not in the scientific branches of the service.

L'Ecole Speciale Militaire de St. Cyr is another feeder of the staff-school. It is designed to form completely instructed infantry and cavalry officers. As many as 600 students can be received, all by open competition only. The regulations for the examinations, admissions, residence, board, outfit, exhibitions, yearly examinations, and classification of students, are, *mutatis mutandis*, the same as those at the Polytechnic. The 25 first students at the *examen de sortie* compete for admission into the staff-school. Those who do not enter there are commissioned, at their choice, according to their place in the class-list, in the infantry or cavalry. There is a certain standard, and those who do not come up to it go into the ranks, but as non-commissioned officers, if so recommended by the commandant of the school.

We come now to L'Ecole d'Application d'Etat-major. This contains 50 stu-

dents, of whom one-half go out yearly. The 25 to be annually admitted are taken, three from the Polytechnic, 22 by competition between 50 candidates, half of whom are the most distinguished students of St. Cyr, and the other half are ensigns, of one year's active service at least, not more than 25 years old, who are permitted to compete by the Minister of War. The three from the Polytechnic are placed at the head of those entering, the 22 successful candidates are classified. They all take rank and pay on admission as ensigns of the staff; and are taught for two years the whole science and art of war—strategy, tactics, manoeuvres, the organization of troops and their management, in barracks, the field, or hospital; the different operations of war, offensive and defensive; its philosophy, as illustrated by eminent commanders. Eight months of the year are occupied with study within doors, three in study without, one in examinations. At the end of the course, a classified list is presented to the Minister of War, who confers the rank of lieutenant of the staff; and assigns each lieutenant to an infantry regiment, as aide-major, for two years, then to a cavalry corps for the same time, then to the artillery and engineers for another year. After all which preparation, they are eligible for the rank of captain, and enter on proper staff duties, as before described.

The French staff then is composed of officers, who are originally selected by literary competition, who, after four years of the highest theoretical teaching, tested throughout from year to year, step by step, by emulative struggles, pass five years more under practical training before they enter on their proper duties.—*Westminster Review* for Jan. 1856.

The superiority of the officers of the French staff is acknowledged by the English Reviewer, and the London Times pays the following compliment to the superior professional training of the Russian officers:—

"The scientific principles displayed in the defense of the place [Sebastopol] surpass all that ever has been done before at sieges, and totally eclipse our best engineering tactics. I hesitate not to say, and I mean it with no malice or disparagement, that, were the Russian engineer officers to see our works, they would laugh at them."

GREECE.

STATISTICS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN 1854.—The population of the Kingdom of Greece amounted in the year 1832 to 612,600 souls; in 1843 to 853,000, and in 1854 to 1,041,472. In 1853 there were in Athens 31,100; in Hermopolis (on the Island of Syria,) 20,000; in Patras 19,500; Argos 10,560; Sparta 6,700; Thebes 4,200, and in Corinth 3,200 inhabitants. Greece numbered in 1853, 30 Bishops and Archbishops, 5,114 Priests and Monks, 252 Lawyers, 274 Doctors, and 219,259 Farmers. There are 6,280 Storekeepers, 26,312 Sailors, 25,546 Workingmen, 11,149 Day-laborers, 4,021 Field-soldiers, and 2,418 in garrisons, 744 Marines, and 1451 Policemen. The importations amounted in 1854 to \$3,738,750; \$1,662,500 from France, \$787,500 from Austria and Germany, \$787,500 from England, \$262,500 from Italy, \$175,000 from Russia—while in 1852 the exportations amounted to \$1,750,000, in 1853 to \$1,575,000, and in 1854 to \$1,195,000.

As to the condition of education in Greece, in 1854 a review has been published by the Minister of Religion and Public Education which contains some very interesting statements. There are in Greece 479 institutions of education, comprising high and elementary, public and private schools, State and parish schools from the University downward, with 688 teachers and 38,018 scholars. The State instructions cost \$100,660; and the parish and private schools cost \$53,588. 1853 Greece contained 483 institutions devoted to educational purposes, with 695 teachers and 46,427 scholars, and the State schools that year cost \$112,693. In 1834 there were, beside the University, which contained 643 students, 7 gymnasia with 856 scholars, 80 common schools with 4,042 scholars, one normal school with 65 scholars, 189 parochial schools for boys—supported by the State, and containing 17,128 scholars, 30 schools of the same kind for girls with 3,721 scholars; there are also 25 private schools for boys with 1,526 scholars, and 4 for girls with 300 scholars, beside the institute of Arsakia in Athens, for grown up females, which has 600 pupils; there are five female schools with 1,000 scholars.—*N. Y. Tribune*.

GREAT BRITAIN.

ASHBURTON PRIZES FOR TEACHING COMMON THINGS.

GREAT prominence has been recently given to instruction in common, household, and familiar things, in consequence of the establishment, by Lord Ashburton, in 1853, of "Prizes for teaching common things," to be awarded to teachers under certain conditions, as to schools and locality, which need not here be specified. The scheme embraced seven prizes—two of £8, two of £15, two of £7, and one of £10—these to be given for actual attainment in a knowledge of common things, and *form*, for actual success as teachers of this knowledge—to be ascertained by an open examination of one day's continuance. The objects had in view, the topics to be examined, are admirably set forth, by Lord Ashburton, in an address* to the teachers of Wilts and Hants, assembled at Winchester on the 16th of December, 1853.

"I do not require you to remit, in the slightest degree, your attention to the mechanical arts of writing and reading, and the practice of arithmetic; but I do ask you to turn your attention and the attention of your scholars to the acquirement, at the same time, of other principles of knowledge which will continue fruitful of improvement, as reading and writing are fruitful of improvement, in after life.

I ask you to show, not only by your lessons in school, but still more powerfully by your example out of school, how the garden can best be cultivated; how the dwelling may be most efficiently and economically warmed and ventilated; upon what principles food and clothing should be selected; how chronic ailments may be averted by timely attention to premonitory symptoms, and recourse to the physician. You can teach the measurement of work, the use of the lever, the pulley, and the windlass; you can, in short, expound those methods suggested by ever-advancing science, by which toil may be lightened and subsistence economized. All this is capable of being taught, and well taught.

Why is one mother of a family a better economist than another? why can one live in abundance, where another starves? Why, in similar dwellings, are the children of one parent healthy, of the other puny and ailing? Why can this laborer do with ease a task which would kill his fellow? It is not luck nor chance that decides these differences; it is the patient observation of nature, that has suggested to some gifted minds rules for their guidance which have escaped the heedlessness of others.

Why should not these rules, systematized by science, illustrated by your didactic powers—why should not they be imparted to the pupils of your schools, to enable youth to start at once with the experience of age? or if this be not in every case possible, why should not all be taught betimes to read those lessons in the book of nature from which some have derived such unquestionable advantage?

Remember that it is by the daily use of the powers of nature that man feeds and clothes and houses himself. He employs fire in a hundred ways for a hundred purposes; why should he not be taught the doctrine of heat? for some purposes he may learn to use it better; he may learn to use it for more.

Again, he passes the lifelong day in the application of the mechanical powers; why should he not be instructed in their principles also? It is true that princes in this land are ignorant of them as well as peasants. In this progressive country, we neglect that knowledge in which there is progress, to devote ourselves to those branches in which we are scarcely, if at all, superior to our ancestors. In this practical country, the knowledge which gives power over nature is left to be picked up by chance on a man's way through life. In this religious country, the knowledge of God's works forms no part of the education of the people, no part even of the accomplishments of a gentleman; but this judicial blindness can not much longer exist. If we wish to hold our rank among nations, if we intend to maintain that manufacturing ascendancy which is the chief source of our

* The Address is contained in a pamphlet of 40 pages, (duo,) published by Groombridge & Sons, 5 Paternoster Row, London, 1854.

national strength, we must carry the study of common things not only into the schools of the poor, but into our colleges and universities.

But there is still another consideration which I would fain place before you. A knowledge of the principles on which he has to act, will sweeten to the laborer and to the mechanic their daily toil. What is it that gives such a zest to our national games, as to divert men from the due prosecution of their business? There is at least as much labor in cricket and foot-ball as in ploughing or carpentering, but there comes in addition to the labor that which extracts all that it has of repulsive or irksome; there comes the pleasurable development of skill and ingenuity. Why should we not then put the laborer in the position to develop his skill and ingenuity, and thus enable him to sweeten his daily toil? At present, he drudges through his allotted task more like a machine than an intelligent being. He just does what others have done before him, he knows not why. But inform his mind, bring his head to bear as well as his hands—to the pleasurable excitement of developed ingenuity and contrivance add the still more pleasurable consciousness of exerted power—let him feel that he may, out of his own resources, master difficulties and possibly invent new processes—that man will raise his head more proudly; he will feel the self-respect of a higher occupation; he will put his heart into his work; he will do what he does better; he will earn not only more for himself, but more for his master and for his country. But this is not all: the habit of self-reliance, the sportive interest which he takes in the use of his awakened faculties will not only prosper his work in good times, but it will brace his spirits, and nerve his resolution to bear up against misfortune. When engaged in the contest of life, with the thousand material difficulties which perplex the most fortunate, which is the happier lot? Is it the lot of the man who folds his arms in the helplessness of ignorance, or of him who battles it out by the exercise of his mental faculties to the last? Whose courage is the most tried, whose nerves the most worn, who suffers the bitterest mental conflict—the soldier standing at ease under fire, or the soldier engaged in death-struggle with his enemy?

If, therefore, we wish to consult the happiness of the rising generation, let us put them in a condition to give battle to the ills which encompass them, to employ all the powers of their mind, all the resources of their imagination; so shall we substitute, in times of difficulty and distress, manly confidence and cheerful alacrity, for the sullen, spiteful moodiness of despair.

But there is another class of common things to which I have not alluded, the ignorance of which bears still more weightily on the welfare of society.

A friend of mine heard a village dame observe, a few days ago, "I should like to know why they have gone and raised the price of bread?"

Is it right, I would ask you, that the poor should be left under the impression that they owe the price of their food to the baker or the Government—the price of their labor to the free will of their employer? Are such convictions as these favorable to the maintenance of the kindly feelings essential to the happiness and peace of society? Do they not encourage the pernicious and degrading idea, too prevalent among the laboring classes, that their dependence is not upon the God who made them, and, through the blessings of God, on their own exertions, but that their dependence is upon their more favored brethren, who have acquired by their wealth the power of dealing with the poor for good or for evil, as they flatter their benevolence or indulge their avarice?"

"After these remarks, it is but just that I should be called upon to explain distinctly what it is that I propose that you should teach, how the topics are to be selected, how connected, in what manner brought forward. Allow me to begin by reminding you that yours is not the only education given in life. There is yet another, beginning earlier, continuing later, producing greater results; and that is the education of home. It is there that the child, by the side of parents or of its neighbor, is familiarized, partly by imitation, partly by precept, with the rudiments of its future occupation. It is there that the girl is trained to love a mother's cares and duties; it is there that the boy learns to demean himself as a member of society, as a father of a family.

Let any man pass over, in his own mind, the business of a given day, he will there see how much the larger, the more important part of that business he has

learned at home. Let me give you an instance. The Chelsea school for the education of the female orphan children of soldiers was given up, because it was found that the girls there educated became an easy prey to the temptations of the world. This was not because they were less religiously, less morally brought up than other girls, but because, being withdrawn as infants from a home education, they lacked that knowledge of the world which home alone can give; because the only experience they had gained at school was how to deal with their girl companions. They had no experience to guide them when brought into contact with other companions and other trials. Such children must have been equally incapable of performing the duties of good housewives, good mothers;—in short, they had received a mere school education, which, at the best, under the most careful, the most accomplished teaching, left them ignorant of the great indispensable duties of life. And be it remembered that when, with reference to orphan children, I speak of the advantage of home, I speak of a home under, perhaps, a harsh relation, or under a stranger, more harsh, more unfeeling still. But even in that home, under that severe training, experienced from the tenderest years, nature provides compensations for the lack of a mother's care, which no school can give; for, thrown on her own resources from earliest infancy, in the midst of that world in which she is destined to live, the child grows in experience as danger springs up in her path. Her quickened perceptions, her rapidly matured character become her safeguard.

Now, with this education at home, it is not for us to compete, for it is the education of nature. It is acquired, not through the medium of words only, but through the medium of the senses also, which senses God has given us to employ for that purpose, graciously allotting, to each exertion of their powers, its appropriate pleasure to sweeten and stimulate their use. Your education, on the other hand, is an artificial education, imparted chiefly through the medium of words, appealing mostly to the reason instead of the senses, divested, I regret to say, too often through the fault of the teacher, of the pleasurable excitement which God intended to accompany the acquisition of each new idea.

Your mission is to assist and complete the home education. Your care should be so to work as to stimulate rather than impair the instinctive craving for knowledge; the vigor of the attention, the retentiveness of the memory, the practical character of the understanding. You will do this best if you take the successive facts in the child's life; facts with which he is familiar; and upon his knowledge of those facts you engraft, first, the principle or theory which explains them, and then all the kindred facts—deductions from the same principle—which may be useful in after life. For example: the child, seeing the fire kindled by its mother at the bottom of the grate, and asks why. She can not tell it why, but you can; you can do more,—you can not only explain why fire spreads upwards rather than downwards, but having done so, you light, by way of further illustration of the principle, a strip of paper; you hold it with the flame downwards, and show how instantaneously the whole is consumed. You light another and throw it on its side; it scarcely burns. You then proceed, upon these facts, witnessed and understood, to build up other kindred facts, hitherto unobserved, but good for use, and improving to the intelligence. You show how, if a girl's frock catches fire, she should at once, in obedience to this same principle, be, like the paper shred, laid flat; and then you might further show how, in conformity with a second principle, illustrated by the way in which a candle is put out by an extinguisher, the air might be excluded from the burning frock, by throwing a cloak or mat over it, and the flame extinguished. Take another case. As the flame of the candle used up the air confined under the extinguisher, and went out, for want of more, so we also, sitting in large numbers in a small room, use up rapidly the vital part of the air, and sicken for want of more, and would absolutely die, were the doors and windows altogether air-tight.

Again: water is brought in for breakfast. The child has pumped it. He has seen the pump repaired, and witnessed how his father strained to pull up the very same sucker by hand, which, with the help of the pump-handle, he has been working up and down with ease. This is one familiar fact, whereon to rest the knowledge of the lever. The use of the spade presents another, when it enables the child to tear up a block of clay from its adherence to the soil beneath, which block he would vainly attempt to lift afterwards one inch with his hands. The

water is put into the kettle, of which the bottom is purposely left uncleaned, on the plea that the water will, on that account, boil the more quickly. You confirm the fact; you explain why this is the case, and you show that two principles are involved: one principle teaches, also, that paint exposed to the sun should be of a light color, in order to stand without blistering; the other principle leads to the further result, that a bright metal teapot will retain its heat longer, and therefore make better tea, than one of crockery, black and unglazed.

Again: the water boils in the kettle by the same law which diffuses the warmth of the fire in the room, and creates the draft in the chimney. By this law the cause of smoky rooms and ill-ventilated rooms may be explained, and the proper remedies suggested.

If you wish to teach geography and the use of maps, construct the first map yourself on the black board, with the assistance of the children. Place the school-house or church in the center, represent the roads leading to them, and then call on each boy to suggest some other landmark, to fill in the plan. You may take this opportunity of familiarizing your pupils with the technical terms expressive of the relative positions of roads, rivers, and other objects; *such as parallel with, at right angles to*. Technical terms, which are only compendious forms for the expression of familiar ideas, should be carefully taught as rapidly as the ideas themselves become known and servicable.

For the same reason, the classification of things familiar, which facilitates thought and simplifies the mode of expression, should also be communicated. Such as the classification of matter into organic and inorganic, of life into animal and vegetable, etc.

Social questions are more difficult, not because it is less easy to explain them, but because the minds of children are less interested by their discussion. The child understands when and why nuts are cheap. It would be no difficult task to extend the results of superfluity on price to the effect of over-population in the New Forest, where numbers, exceeding the demand for their labor, have been attracted by the prospect of enjoying for their pigs, and geese, and ponies unstinted rights of common. Again, the child knows by hard experience that the family must go on half rations when bread falls short on Friday night, and the shop gives no more credit. But, ask it what England must do when there is but half a crop? Ask it who will do for England what their mother did for them, when she prevented them from consuming all they had at one meal? You may perhaps lead them, step by step, to see at last that the rise of price is our only safeguard against famine; and, that this rise of price is not the work of any one man, or of any set of men, but that it originates in the expectation of those who hold corn that they will sell dearer if they sell later. You may, perhaps, succeed in showing, further, that God has not left the many to be preyed upon by the avarice of the few; that, on the contrary, he has so ordered things in this case, and, indeed, in all other cases, as to make it the interest of the few to consult the interest of the many, and to visit with actual loss those of the few who, out of ignorance, act in opposition to the interests of the many. If, for example, Farmer Styles holds back his supplies in spring, and, by refusing to sell at the price then offered, raises prices to such an extent as to prevent the spring from having its full share of the year's supply, the part of that share which has been unconsumed will be added to the share of the summer, and prices will then fall, when Farmer Styles expects to sell at an enhanced price.

You may thus go on founding the unknown upon that which is known and familiar, gratifying and exciting, but never satiating the natural appetite for knowledge, inculcating what, once heard and understood, will never be forgotten; at the same time that you cultivate those faculties which distinguish the man from the brute; and, you impart an elevation, a self-reliance to his character which will tend more than anything to raise him above sensual pleasures. By such training as this you will give him more than mere information,—you will give him habits of observing, reflecting, and acting for himself.

If I want to equip an emigrant for the backwoods, should I encumber him with ready-made articles,—with chairs, and tables, and stools? Do I not rather teach him how to make these articles for himself out of the materials beside him? You are fitting out the youth for the rude campaign of life. How shall he be equipped? Shall it be with cut and dried ideas, the fruit of the working of other men's minds, or shall he move forth, trained to gather, combine, and use ideas, the materials for

which encompass him round about? You teach him to read, in order that he may, in after-life, use the thoughts of the wise among men; teach him also to read nature, which is wiser and more powerful still. Books he may or may not have in his emergencies; nature is always with him. That is not the best army which has the most baggage. What the pack of hounds, and the bands of music, and the services of plate were to our army in Afghanistan, the million facts of modern education are to the boy on his entrance in life; but, the first serious conflict, the first encounter with realities, dissolves the charm, and the hard-earned inutilities are discarded as superfluous lumber; and yet—

“The world is still deceived by ornament.”

By adopting my suggestions you will not satisfy the majority of those who attend annual inspections. Their admiration is reserved for the brilliant results which are to be exhibited by drawing from the minds of children, thoughts transplanted there without roots, the produce of wiser minds. Your pupils will be of altogether a different stamp; they will know comparatively little, but the notions they have will be of home growth, of slender immediate-apparent value, proportioned as they must be to the infant minds in which they have sprung, but capable of subsequent development, to meet the emergency which may require their use.

The man of sense will distinguish at a glance their earnest, intelligent eye, their alert manner, their pertinent answers. He will give due credit to your work and to your system; but, you must resign yourselves for a time to the fate of being derided and slighted by the majority, who are too apt to value things as they are, not as they are destined to be; and, above all, to underrate the sure and slow growth which is generally the characteristic of the highest merit. Our busy, thoughtless world is too disposed to despise little gains, and yet little gains store most wealth; little moral gains, triumphs over petty temptations, make the firmest characters. So, also, little intellectual gains made hour by hour, and minute by minute, at every step in life, the result of early habit and wise education, do more to ripen the intellect and even to mature the character than any instruction that can be hammered in from without.

It is given to you, teachers of the rising generation, to bend their minds in this direction. The misery which can be remedied by the charity of rich men is purely physical, the relief can extend only to few; it neither elevates those who receive it, nor their children after them. But, the misery which the teacher can avert, by substituting self-support and self-respect for dependence and beggary, has no limits to its amount; it multiplies blessings both on the present and on succeeding generations.

The English Government cannot do better than to fill the office of “Vice President of the Committee of Council on Education,” by the appointment of Lord Ashburton, and commissioning him to address such remarks to the teachers and parents of England assembled, after the fashion of our “Teachers’ Institutes.” If his lordship has any spare time he can extend his labors to our schools, to great advantage to our knowledge of common things.

The Prizes were awarded in 1854, and the offer of similar prizes was renewed in 1855. His example has been followed in other parts of England, as well as in Ireland, as will be seen by the following extract from the *Twenty-first Report of the Commissioners of National Education*, in 1855.

We had the satisfaction, last year, of announcing the liberal offer of Dr. Sullivan to place at our disposal the sum of £20 annually, to be awarded by us as premiums to the Teachers of National Schools in the counties of Down and Antrim, who should be found, at examinations held for the purpose, to be best acquainted with “the knowledge of common things.”

Agreeably to the wish of Dr. Sullivan, we entrusted the work of conducting the first examination for these premiums to Mr. McCreedy, one of our Head Inspectors. He, accordingly, assembled the candidates, male and female, in Belfast, early in December. They were subjected, each sex separately, to two days’ examination on all the useful information contained in our Lesson Books, which contain a large amount of instruction regarding agriculture, manufactures, and

commerce; the phenomena of the simpler parts of Natural Philosophy, the principles of mechanics, and the results of machinery; the laws which govern our social and economical relations; the great truths of animal and vegetable physiology; the general conditions of life in health and disease, and the relation which these bear to the observance of cleanliness, ventilation, and other sanitary provisions and regulations.

The examination was in part oral and in part written; twenty-six male and sixteen female teachers attended. We have been gratified to learn that while all acquitted themselves throughout in a highly creditable manner, the answering of the successful competitors, and of some others, was of a very superior kind, and displayed great familiarity with the subjects treated of in our books.

This experiment has been so successful, that we shall take into consideration the expediency of extending it to other parts of the country.

FEMALE ADULT EDUCATION.

The Irish Quarterly Review, for March, 1856, contains an article on Female Adult Education, in an account of a visit to the evening schools for female adults, conducted by the Sisters of Mercy, in the Callender street National school, Belfast, from which we make the following abstract:

This school was established for the purpose of extending the blessings of education to grown up females, especially to those who are employed in the mills of which there are thirty-three in operation. The Sisters of Mercy, in Belfast, opened a school in March, 1854, to which over 600 flocked for admission—twice the number that could be accommodated. The applicants were divided into two classes. The first class, of 250, were those who could read, and were anxious to learn writing and arithmetic; and in the second, of 300, were those who could not read at all. The former attended on Tuesday and Thursday, and the latter on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. The pupils of both classes were adults, and many of them were married women. We visited it on a cold, rainy, cheerless evening, in the early part of January. We were prepared to find the school-room empty, but at 7 o'clock 205 were present. Their work in the mills had ceased at six o'clock, and in the mean time they had gone home, washed and arranged themselves, and from various and remote parts of the town made their way, in all cleanliness, to the school. The pupils pay *one pence* per week, and for this they receive instruction, books, pens, and slates, gratis. An unalterable rule is, that no one deficient in personal cleanliness, or questionable as to morals or general propriety, can be admitted. There were two school-rooms in the establishment, plainly, but adequately furnished. Maps were suspended from the walls, and conspicuously placed on the wall was the beautiful lesson published by the commissioners of national education, which inculcates christian charity and forbearance.

Christians should endeavor, as the Apostle Paul commands them, to "live peaceably with all men," (Rom. ch. xii. v. 18,) even with those of a different religious persuasion.

Our Saviour, Christ, commanded his disciples to "love one another;" he taught them to love even their enemies, to bless those that cursed them, and to pray for those who persecuted them. He himself prayed for his murderers.

Many men hold erroneous doctrines, but we ought not to hate or persecute them. We ought to seek for the truth, and to hold fast what we are convinced is the truth; but not to treat harshly those who are in error. Jesus Christ did not intend his religion to be forced on men by violent means. He would not allow his disciples to fight for him.

If any person treats us unkindly, we must not do the same to them; for Christ and his apostles have taught us not to return evil for evil. If we would obey Christ, we must do to others, not as they do to us, but as we should wish them to do to us.

Quarrelling with our neighbors, and abusing them, is not the way to convince them that we are in the right, and they in the wrong. It is more likely to convince them that we have not a Christian spirit.

We ought to show ourselves followers of Christ, "who, when he was reviled, reviled not again," (1 Pet. ch. ii. v. 23,) by behaving gently and kindly to every one.

The course of education consists simply of reading, writing, and the rudiments of grammar and geography. As far as practicable, no girl is admitted who already knows how to read. It was to make the ignorant wise, and not the wise wiser, that the school was opened. It is the resolution of the Sisters of Mercy to reduce the terrible quota of ignorance, exposed by the census of 1851, viz. : of not less than 1,563,636 females, in Great Britain, who could not read or write. As soon as a pupil advances from the lowest to fourth class, which is at the end of six months' attendance, she retires and gives way to an outstanding applicant. Of the 205 females present at the time of our visit, there were thirteen as young as 12 years and eight who were 24 years—the average being 18 years; 180 worked in the mills; 117 were engaged in writing; 176, in learning arithmetical tables; 151, the easy process of mental arithmetic; 90 could read as intelligibly as the great mass of the scholars in day schools; 22 had acquired the rudiments of grammar. Order, attention, and neatness characterized the school. The religious exercises were confined to the recital of a simple and beautiful prayer, five minutes before the school dispersed. Deep, solemn, and simultaneous came their responsive tones, that God might cultivate their intellect, and prepare them the better to enjoy His wisdom and His glory. Gentleness of manners, peacefulness in their relations with their neighbors, love of order, the observance of the precepts of virtue, the avoidance of sectarian bitterness, and the upholding of the dignity and purity of their sex, are among the inestimable advantages gained from the admonitions, teachings, and example of the nuns.

NORMAL LACE SCHOOL IN DUBLIN.

The following account of an interesting experiment to introduce an entirely new branch of domestic labor into Ireland, is copied from a memorial of the Ladies' Industrial Society, to the Board of Trade for governmental aid.

This educational school emanated from a society established in the time of the famine of the year 1847, called "The Ladies' Industrial Society for Ireland;" and its object has been to introduce into this country the more elegant and difficult handicraft fabrics of *lacework* hitherto almost confined to the countries of Belgium and France, and known by the names of *Valenciennes*, *French*, and *Guipure* laces. These laces differ from all the other handicraft work bearing the name of lace hitherto produced in Ireland under the titles of *Limerick* and *Carriemacross* lace, these latter being merely embroidery on bobbinets and muslin sewed over, so as to form a variety of patterns; while the laces, on the contrary, which are now being made in this country by means of our normal establishment, are distinguished from all mere inventions of lace in that they are wholly evolved (ground-work and design) by the peculiar twisting of the thread, which is wound on bobbins and placed upon a cushion for that purpose, the twisting or manipulation of the thread varying with the different species of lace to be produced. This art is extremely difficult to acquire, demanding great natural quickness and dexterity on the part of the workers; consequently this work bears a higher value than any other class of work done by hand; and though known for centuries, it is continually progressing in style and finish, and always increasing in demand.

It was in order to introduce this work that early in the year 1851 our training school was established. Since that time sixty pupils have been under instruction, twenty of whom have acquired the complete mastery of the art, and are now acting as teachers to as many local schools in the several counties of Donegal, Fer-

managh, Queen's County, Louth, Longford, Limerick, Galway, Clare, Kilkenny, and Waterford.

The pupils are sent up from various parts of the country, chiefly by *ladies* desirous of establishing this manufacture amongst their poor; and these pupils are received into the school on the payment of a small sum on admission, and 2s. 6d. weekly per head.

These payments suffice to meet nearly one half of the expenses of the school; the remaining expenses have been hitherto defrayed by private contributions. The average number of resident pupils at any given time is from thirty to forty. As they complete their course of instruction they return to superintend local schools in the districts from whence they came, leaving their places in the normal school to be filled by others.

The skill displayed from the commencement by most of the pupils has been beyond what was anticipated; some of them have even reached the *highest* degree of excellence in their art, such as the pricking their own patterns, and the working from designs which latter is attainable by few even amongst the first class of lace workers abroad.

It is unnecessary to insist on the peculiar applicability to Ireland of a species of handicraft work requiring both taste and delicacy of manipulation on the part of the workers, and but little capital on the part of its promoters. The Irish poor possess a peculiar aptitude for every species of handicraft work, and most of the gentry, desirous of promoting employment amongst their poor, are yet for the most part unequal to the engaging in any undertaking involving the outlay of much capital.

The making of this lace supports a large proportion of the female population both of Belgium and France, and from the experience we have had of the suitability of the work to the Irish poor, we are warranted in anticipating from it a similar result to the poor of this country.

Owing to the extreme care of the Belgians in preventing the knowledge of their art from spreading to other countries, it was many months before we could procure a lace teacher from that country; at length, through the intervention of a London lace merchant (Mr. Goblet), we obtained teachers from both Belgium and England, and the same gentleman continues to guide and assist our work, by supplying us with patterns, materials, &c., at cost prices; and it is his purpose, as well as his interest, to purchase the lace made in the several local schools according as it is produced; but in consequence of the extreme slowness of the lace work in the commencement (the Valenciennes lace especially), it has been arranged with Mr. Goblet, that for the first year the lace made by the district schools should be taken by the "Ladies' Industrial Society," who, by giving more than the wholesale price for it, prevent the workers being discouraged in their first attempts.*

The whole expenses of this our Normal School amount to 300*l.* per annum, the greater part of which is raised by private contributions; and now that its value has been so well tested, we feel that its support should no longer be allowed to rest on such uncertain grounds, but that its claims to a more permanent support should now be recognized by your Lordships.

By reference to the appropriations in aid of the Department of Science and Art, it appears that a grant of £500 was made in aid of this Model Lace School.

THE QUEEN'S INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL AT WINDSOR.

Sir James Kay Shuttleworth, on a visit to the church schools at Padiham, in order to excite the emulation of the wealthy, told an anecdote relating to the Queen:

"He was some eight or nine years ago called on by her Majesty to organize for her and Prince Albert, some schools in the royal forest of Windsor. The view the Queen took was, that a very large portion of the population resident in that district being dependent on the crown, and employed as laborers on the farms, or in the forests, or in the household duties connected with the royal farms, and so forth, she had therefore a personal responsibility in their well-being. The people

* Six of these district schools are now producing good and saleable lace.

were scattered over the districts between one town and another, in which there were no schools or means of education; and the children were brought up in a half-wild manner, very much in the same condition as in remote portions of the country in the south of England. Her Majesty resolved that an efficient school should be established; and it seemed desirable that the school should be typical of the act of royal munificence which was about to be accomplished, and not only worthy of the crown, but an example to the country at large. Her Majesty made no stipulation whatever as to the cost, and he drew out a scheme which involved an expenditure of £1,000 a year. It provided for the instruction of the children not merely in the ordinary secular and religious knowledge, but also supplied the best form of instruction in common things, such as in gardening, in household cooking, washing, making up clothes, &c.; in preparing dishes suitable for, and otherwise enhancing the comfort of cottagers, which latter were taught in kitchens and wash-houses prepared for the purpose. Her Majesty not only assented to this plan being carried out (and the plan had been in operation during the last nine years,) but she has promoted its success in every way; and all the linen worn by the royal children and a very great deal of that used in the royal apartments is the work of this establishment. The Queen is in the habit of inspecting the place in person, and takes a deep interest in its operations. The boys have a garden of several acres, in which they cultivate all that is necessary for cottage use; they have a plot which they jointly cultivate; and in addition they have small separate plots, which they cultivate upon the plan of the common cottage gardener. They are employed also in workshops, but chiefly in gardening. This establishment does not simply exist as a sort of outside show, but is a subject of personal interest to Her Majesty; is regularly inspected by her, and often by the different visitors at the court; and the Prince of Wales is in the habit of examining the scholars in certain branches of their studies."

INFLUENCE OF THE RECENT COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION ON THE EDUCATIONAL
SYSTEMS OF SCOTLAND.

Appointments to the civil services of the East India Company are now given on the basis of a competitive examination, open to all candidates from any section of the British Empire, and from any educational institution. The North British Review, for February, 1856, uses the following language in reference to the influence of these examinations on the old educational systems, especially those of Scotland.

"Here were great prizes to gain, instead of doubtful *plucks* to avoid; rank, an early settlement, and wealth; a valuable certainty for the present, and untold possibilities for the future, amidst those dusky millions of the East, whose rule had till now been guarded by a jealous monopoly of patronage. It was now time for all colleges and schools to bestir themselves. And the effect has been, to transfer at one blow the main strength of examinatorial influence to a central board, or it may prove to be an aggregate of such boards, existing entirely outside of all our seats of learning, and entirely exempt from their control. The wand of mere college examiners is broken. Their approval is no longer looked up to by the student as his highest educational reward. Their judgment may be reversed on appeal to a tribunal, which can recompense its favorites by richer prizes. Every one, therefore, is naturally looking to see how the old institutions will bear the strain of this new trial; how they will comport themselves under this unexpected change. Now, men are saying, we shall all know how far old boastings will be justified, and whether venerable claims will be confirmed. Now we can examine examiners. Now we can turn the tables on the dignified authorities of college rule. We have at last obtained a central appeal to balance their pretensions; a court of supervision, which may correct some arrogance, dispel some foolish vaporing, and secure its true place for modest and hitherto neglected merit.

Their first impulse, therefore, hurried men to a speedy counting up of marks, and a comparison of relative success. England boasted of her triumph with one in every four of her numerous candidates. Ireland, though the Dublin men had a grievous disappointment, was yet not quite inconsolable with her one in each eleven. Scotland bewailed the solitary promise of the one who succeeded, from

her whole array of fifteen aspirants. So again, Oxford pointed proudly to her eight winners out of nineteen candidates, as an answer in full to the ignorance and misconception, which had dreamed that nothing useful or practical could spring from her secluded halls. Cambridge was a little doubtful whether all was fair, when she found that her thirty-two candidates only produced six winners; but she drew some comfort from the fact, that they stood rather higher than the sons of her sister on the roll. The London University College claimed the first man on the whole list, and was otherwise content to gain two places with six candidates. King's College, London, and Queen's College, Galway, held their heads higher at securing one place each with only two candidates. Queen's College, Cork, could not complain, because she too had only one place with five candidates, when she saw that her unfortunate elder sister, of Dublin, did not gain a single place with fourteen. To console the wounded pride of Dublin, a fellow of Trinity College immediately published an abstruse calculation, to prove that her students had "fought in the shade." But alas for Scotland! she had little ground for either immediate boast or after-thought solace. There was dismay throughout the land when it was heard, that the country had been beaten hollow on its favorite ground: that while the Scotch universities and schools had shown their good-will by sending fifteen candidates, they had sadly exposed their weakness when only one of the fifteen succeeded. We have no wish to reopen unnecessarily the controversy which this provoking result occasioned; but some points in it seem to demand a closer handling. It must be admitted that Scotland has been, in many respects, unfairly treated in the recent changes. This has been clearly shown by other writers. But when we look at the great breadth of the examination, and the large amount of attainable marks, (6875,) as contrasted with the smallness of the numbers which actually commanded success, (the highest being 2254, and the lowest 1120,) we do not think that there are many Scotchmen who are not conscious of a painful misgiving, that their countrymen had not been properly equipped for the contest.

On this, as on all other subjects, the plain truth is also the most wholesome. Do not let us try to hide it by phrases. Do not let us go off the scent by carping at the examiners, finding fault with their questions, suggesting doubts about their rules, or complaining of the unfair exclusion of Scottish professors from their list. There may be something in all this, and it will be well to get it amended if we can. But it is our still earlier duty to look to our own faults, and to see that they are amended. If Scotchmen were beaten, there are several respects in which Scotland was herself to blame.

They were beaten, then, because the raw and medley classes of Scottish universities can not follow up the splendid drill of Scottish schools. They were beaten, because Scottish parents have been penny-wise and pound-foolish; because they have forgotten the means while they were grasping at the end; because they have sent forth their sons to the battle of life, after grudging them the training which they needed for the war; because they have impoverished their schools by draining them of their older pupils, and drowned their universities, by flooding their halls with boyish students; because they have so shamefully underpaid the learned, that they have almost starved learning itself out of the land; because they have thus spoilt the fair stream of Scottish education, which flows near its source with a firm and steady current, by letting it flush forth too soon into the diffusive, the shallow, and the worthless, instead of damming it up so as to make it strong, clear, powerful, and profound.

LORD JOHN RUSSELL'S SCHEME OF NATIONAL EDUCATION.

Lord J. Russell, on the 6th of March, 1856, in the House of Commons, moved the following resolutions:—

1. That, in the opinion of this House, it is expedient to extend, revise and consolidate the minutes of the Committee of Privy Council on Education.
2. That it is expedient to add to the present inspectors of church schools, 80 sub-inspectors, and to divide England and Wales into 80 divisions for the purposes of education.
3. That it is expedient to appoint sub-inspectors of British, Wesleyan, and other Protestant schools not connected with the church, and also of Roman Cath-

olic schools, according to the present proportions of inspectors of such schools, to the inspectors of such schools.

4. That on the report of the inspectors and sub-inspectors, the Committee of Privy Council should have power to form, in each division, school districts, consisting of single or united parishes, or parts of parishes.

5. That the sub-inspectors of schools of each division should be instructed to report on the available means for the education of the poor in each school district.

6. That for the purpose of extending such means, it is expedient that the powers at present possessed by the Commissioners of Charitable Trust be enlarged, and that the funds, now useless or injurious to the public, be applied to the education of the middle and poorer classes of the community.

7. That it is expedient that in any school district where the means of education arising from any endowment, subscription, grants, and schoolpence shall be found deficient, and shall be declared to be so by the Committee of Privy Council for Education, the ratepayers should have the power of taxing themselves for the erection and maintenance of a school or schools.

8. That after the 1st of January, 1858, when any school district shall have been declared to be deficient in adequate means for the education of the poor, the quarter sessions of the peace for the county, city, or borough, should have power to impose a school rate.

9. That where a school rate is imposed, a school committee elected by the ratepayers should appoint the schoolmasters and mistresses, and make regulations for the management of the schools.

10. That in every school supported, in whole or in part, by rates, a portion of the Holy Scriptures should be read daily in the school, and such other provision should be made for religious instruction as the school committee may think fit, but that no child should be compelled to receive any religious instruction or attend any religious worship to which his or her parents or guardians shall, on conscientious grounds, object.

11. That employers of children and young persons between 9 and 15 years of age, should be required to furnish certificates, half-yearly, of the attendance of such children and young persons at school, and to pay for such instruction.

12. That it is expedient that every encouragement should be given by prizes, by diminution of school fees, by libraries, by evening schools, and other methods, to the instruction of young persons between 12 and 15 years of age.

These resolutions were sustained by the noble mover, in a speech of three hours, and of marked ability, and which apparently commanded the assent of the house. But on the 10th of April the discussion was continued, and on the opposition of several leading members, the scheme was withdrawn.

A bill has passed the House of Lords, authorizing the appointment of a Vice President of the Committee of Council on Education, with a seat in the House of Commons. This officer will be, virtually, Minister of Public Instruction.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

The number of schools of all kinds in New South Wales, at the close of the year 1853, was 420, with a total of 25,660 scholars; of whom 13,575 were males, and 12,085 females. The schools are divisible under the following heads:—Orphan, 2, (one Protestant and one Catholic,) with 337 scholars; Denominational, 174, with 14,879 scholars; these schools are thus sub-divided:—Church of England, 91, with 6,887 scholars; Presbyterian, 16, with 1,443 scholars; Wesleyan, 8, with 935 scholars; Roman Catholic, 59, with 5,614 scholars. National schools, 46, with 3,651 scholars. The whole of the foregoing schools receive support from government. To the list of educational establishments receiving government aid, must also be added the University of Sydney. Of private schools there were 197, with 6,738 scholars. The total amount of government aid received for educational purposes in 1853 was £25,450, 17s. 7d.; the amount of voluntary subscriptions, £10,492, 8s. 2d. The two orphan schools are entirely supported by government aid, the Protestant receiving in 1853, £2,411, 11s. 1d.; the Roman Catholic, £2,760, 0s. 7d.

TABLE.—EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF GREAT BRITAIN IN 1851.

(From Burritt's Year Book of the Nations.)

Description and Number of Public and Private Schools, and Number of Scholars, in England and Wales in 1851.

Description of Schools.	No. of Schls.	No. of Scholars.	Description of Schools.	No. of Schools.	No. of Scholars.
Class 1.			Class 3 (continued).		
Military Schools	35	3,348	<i>Denominational (continued).</i>		
Naval Schools	14	2,348	Bible Christians—British..	1	64
Woods and Forests Schools	1	259	" Others..	7	303
Corporation Schools	3	2,394	Wesleyan Meth. Association	10	1,112
Workhouse Schools	523	36,067	Calvinistic Meth.—British	22	1,759
Prison Schools	34	2,410	" Others..	19	1,065
TOTAL..	610	48,826	Lady Huntingdon's Con-		
Class 2.			nexion—British..	1	80
Collegiate & Grammar Sch.	566	35,612	" Others..	8	564
Other Endowed Schools ..	2,599	170,667	New Church.....	9	1,551
TOTAL..	3,125	206,279	Dissenters (not defined) Br.	28	3,851
Class 3.			" Others..	15	1,541
<i>Denominational, supported by</i>			Lutherans	1	157
<i>Church of England—</i>			French Protestants	1	15
" National ..	3,720	464,975	German Missionary Society	1	100
" British...:	12	1,043	Isolated Congregatns.—Br.	2	184
" Others....	4,839	335,489	" Others..	12	960
Church of Scotland—British	1	130	Roman Catholics	311	38,583
" Others	4	816	Jews	10	1,234
United Presbyterians	3	217	Udenomimational—British	514	82,597
Presbyterian Church in			" Others..	4	1,062
England—British.....	2	86	TOTAL..	10,595	1,048,851
" Others.....	23	2,361	Class 4.		
Scottish Presbyterians	1	345	Ragged Schools (exclusive		
Presbyterians (not otherwise			of those supported by		
defined)—British	1	263	religious bodies)	123	22,337
" Others	6	1,058	Orphan Schools	39	3,764
Independents—British.....	183	22,598	Blind Schools	11	609
" Others....	248	24,808	Deaf and Dumb Schools ..	9	392
Baptists—British	51	4,946	School for Idiots	1	18
" Others.....	64	3,719	Factory Schools	115	17,894
Society of Friends—British	5	577	Colliery Schools	41	3,511
" Others	18	1,670	Chemical Works Schools..	4	832
Unitarians—British.....	4	882	Foundry School	1	103
" Others.....	26	2,854	Mechanics' Institution Sch.	5	1,564
Moravians	7	366	Industrial Schools	6	607
Wesleyan Methodists—Brit.	20	3,082	Agricultural Schools.....	3	264
" Others.....	343	36,682	Railway Schools	5	842
Methodist New Connexion,			Philanthrop. Soc. Farm Sc.	1	96
" British..	3	667	Other Subscription Schools		
" Others..	10	1,143	of no specific character..	717	56,441
Primitive Methodist—Brit.	2	206	TOTAL..	1,081	109,214
" Others..	23	1,091			

SUMMARY OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

Public Day Schools, 15,411	Scholars, 1,413,170	Males, 795,632	Females, 617,538
Private do. Schools, 29,425	" 695,422	" 343,692	" 351,730
Sunday Schools 23,137	" 2,369,039	" 1,174,647	" 1,194,392
Eve. Sch. for Adults, 1,545	" 39,783	" 27,829	" 11,954

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AMERICAN STATES.

PROF. DANA'S INAUGURAL DISCOURSE AS SILLIMAN PROFESSOR OF GEOLOGY IN YALE COLLEGE.

PROF. JAMES D. DANA, LL. D., entered upon his duties as Professor of Geology and Natural History in Yale College, on the 18th of February, 1856. In the exordium to his Introductory Lecture, he held the following language respecting his distinguished predecessor, Professor Benjamin Silliman, Senior, in the Chair of Geology, whose connection with the Professorship embraces the history of that Science in this country.

"In entering upon the duties of this place, my thoughts turn rather to the past, than to the subject of the present hour. I feel that it is an honored place, honored by the labors of one who has been the guardian of American Science from its childhood; who here first opened to the country the wonderful records of Geology; whose words of eloquence and earnest truth, were but the overflow of a soul full of noble sentiments and warm sympathies, the whole throwing a peculiar charm over his learning, and rendering his name beloved as well as illustrious. Just fifty years since Professor Silliman took his station at the head of chemical and geological science in this college. Geology was then hardly known by name in the land out of these walls. Two years before, previous to his tour in Europe, the whole Cabinet of Yale was a half bushel of unlabeled stones. On visiting England, he found even in London no school, public or private, for geological instruction, and the science was not named in the English Universities. To the mines, quarries and cliffs of England, the crags of Scotland, and the meadows of Holland, he looked for knowledge, and from these and the teachings of Murray, Jameson, Hall, Hope, and Playfair, at Edinburgh, Professor Silliman returned, equipped for duty,—albeit a great duty,—that of laying the foundation, and creating almost out of nothing, a department not before recognized in any institution in America.

He began his work in 1806. The Science was without books—and too without system, except such as its few cultivators had each for himself in his conceptions. It was the age of the first beginnings of Geology, when Wernerians and Huttonians were arrayed in a contest. The disciples of Werner believed that all rocks had been deposited from aqueous solutions,—from a foul chaotic ocean that fermented and settled, and so produced the succession of strata. The disciples of Hutton had no faith in water, and would not take it even half and half with their more potent agency, but were for fire, and fire alone. Thus, as when the earth itself was evolved from chaos, fire and water were in violent conflict: and out of the conflict emerged the noble science.

Professor Silliman when at Edinburgh witnessed the strife, and while, as he says, his earliest predilections were for the more peaceful mode of rock making, these soon yielded to the accumulating evidence, and both views became combined in his mind in one harmonious whole. The science, thus evolved, grew with him and by him; for his own labors contributed to its extension. Every year was a year of expansion and onward development, and the grandeur of the opening views found in him a ready and appreciative response. Like nature herself, ever fresh and vigorous in the display of truth, bearing flowers as well as facts, full and glowing in his illustrations, and clear in his views and reasonings, he became a centre

of illumination for the Continent. The attraction of that light led his successor out of Oneida County, New York, to Yale; and I doubt not, if all should now speak that have been guided hither by the same influence, we should have a vast chorus of voices.

Geology from the first encountered opposition. Its very essence, indeed the very existence of the Science, involved the idea of Secondary causes in the progress of the creation of the world—whilst Moses had seemingly reduced each step of progress to a *fiat*, a word of command. The champions of the Bible seemed called upon, therefore, to defend it against scientific innovations: and they labored zealously and honestly, not knowing that Science may also be of God. Professor Silliman being an example of Christian character beyond reproach, personal attacks were not often made. But thousands of regrets that his influence was given over to the dissemination of error were privately, and sometimes publicly expressed. An equal interest was exhibited by the lecturer in the welfare of his opponents, and the progress of what he believed to be the truth; and with boldness and power he stood by both the Bible and the Science, until now there are few to question his faith.

And while the Science and truth have thus made progress here, through these labors of fifty years, the means of study in the Institution have no less increased. Instead of that half bushel of stones, which once went to Philadelphia for names, in a candle box, you see above the largest Mineral Cabinet in the country, which but for Professor Silliman, his attractions and his personal exertions together,—would never have been one of the glories of Old Yale. And there are also in the same Hall, large collections of Fossils of the Chalk, Wealden and Tertiary of England, which following the course of affection and admiration, came from Doctor Mantell to Professor Silliman, and now have their place with the other “Medals of Creation,” there treasured along with similar collections from M. Alexander Brongniart of Paris. Thus the stream has been ever flowing, and this Institution has had the benefit,—a stream not solely of minerals and fossils, but also of pupils and friends.

Moreover, the American Journal of Science—now in its thirty-seventh year and seventieth volume—projected and long sustained solely by Professor Silliman, while ever distributing truth, has also been ever gathering honors, and is one of the laurels of Yale.

We rejoice that in laying aside his studies, after so many years of labor, there is still no abated vigor. Youth with him has been perpetual. Years will make some encroachments as they pass: yet Time, with some, seems to stand aloof when the inner Temple is guarded by a soul of genial sympathies and cheerful goodness. He retires as one whose right it is to throw the burden on others. Long may he be with us, to enjoy the good he has done, and cheer us by his noble and benign presence.”

EDWARD EVERETT AMONG THE SCHOOL CHILDREN OF BOSTON.

At the School Festival held in Faneuil Hall, at the close of the Annual Examination of the Grammar Schools of Boston, in 1855, Hon. Edward Everett made the following beautiful address:—

“It was, Mr. Mayor, fifty-two years last April, since I began, at the age of nine years, to attend the reading and writing schools in North Bennet street. The reading school was under Master Little; (for “Young America” had not yet repudiated that title,) and the writing school was kept by Master Tilestone. Master Little, in spite of his name, was a giant in stature—six feet four, at least

—and somewhat wedded to the past. He struggled earnestly against the change then taking place in the pronunciation of *u*, and insisted on our saying *monocement* and *natur*. But I acquired, under his tuition, what was thought, in those days, a very tolerable knowledge of Lindley Murray's abridgement of English grammar, and at the end of the year could parse almost any sentence in the American Preceptor. Master Tilestone was a writing master of the old school. He set the copies himself, and taught that beautiful old Boston handwriting, which, if I do not mistake, has, in the march of innovation, (which is not always the same thing as improvement,) been changed very little for the better. Master Tilestone was advanced in years, and had found a qualification for his calling as a writing master, in what might have seemed, at first, to threaten to be an obstruction. The fingers of his right hand had been contracted and stiffened in early life, by a burn, but were fixed in just the position to hold a pen and a penknife, and nothing else. As they were also considerably indurated, they served as a convenient instrument of discipline. A copy badly written, or a blotted page, was sometimes visited with an infliction which would have done no discredit to the beak of a bald eagle. His long, deep desk was a perfect curiosity shop of confiscated balls, tops, penknives, marbles, and jewsharps; the accumulation of forty years. I desire, however, to speak of him with gratitude, for he put me on the track of an acquisition which has been extremely useful to me in after life—that of a plain legible hand. I remained at these schools about sixteen months, and had the good fortune, in 1804, to receive the Franklin medal in the English department.

After an interval of about a year, during which I attended a private school kept by Mr. Ezekiel Webster, of New Hampshire, and on occasion of his absence, by his ever memorable brother, Daniel Webster, at that time a student of law in Boston, I went to the Latin school, then slowly emerging from a state of extreme depression. It was kept in School street, where the Horticultural Hall now stands. Those who judge of what the Boston Latin School ought to be, from the spacious and commodious building in Bedford street, can form but little idea of the old school house. It contained but one room, heated in the winter by an iron stove, which sent up a funnel into a curious brick chimney, built down from the roof, in the middle of the room, to within seven or eight feet from the floor, being like Mahomet's coffin, held in the air to the roof by bars of iron. The boys had to take their turns, in winter, in coming early to the school-house, to open it, to make a fire, sometimes of wet logs and a very inadequate supply of other combustibles, to sweep out the room, and, if need be, to shovel a path through the snow to the street. These were not very fascinating duties for an urchin of ten or eleven; but we lived through it, and were perhaps not the worse for having to turn our hands to these little offices.

The standard of scholastic attainment was certainly not higher than that of material comfort in those days. We read pretty much the same books—or of the same class—in Latin and Greek, as are read now; but in a very cursory and superficial manner. There was no attention paid to the philosophy of the languages, to the deduction of words from their radical elements, to the niceties of construction, still less to prosody. I never made an hexameter or pentameter verse, till years afterwards I had a son at school in London, who occasionally required a little aid in that way. The subsidiary and illustrative branches were wholly unknown in the Latin School in 1805. Such a thing as a school library, a book of reference, a critical edition of a classic, a map, a blackboard, an engraving of an ancient building, or a copy of a work of ancient art, such as now adorn the walls of our schools, was as little known as the electric telegraph. If our children, who possess all these appliances and aids to learning, do not greatly excel their parents, they will be much to blame.

At this school in 1806, I had the satisfaction to receive the Franklin medal, which, however, as well as that received at the English school in 1804, during my absence from the country in early life, I was so unfortunate as to lose. I begged my friend, Dr. Sturteff, a year or more ago, to replace them—these precious trophies of my school-boy days—at my expense, which he has promised to do. He has not yet had time to keep his word; but as, in addition to his other numerous professional and official occupations, he is engaged in editing the records of the Massachusetts and Plymouth Colony, in about twenty-five volumes folio, and is bringing out the work at the rate of five or six volumes a year, I suppose I must

excuse him for not attending to my medals, although, like Julius Cæsar, the doctor possesses the faculty of doing three or four things at the same time, and all with great precision and thoroughness.

Mr. Mayor, the schools of Boston have improved within fifty years, beyond what any one will readily conceive, who has not, in his own person, made the examination. I have made it myself only with reference to the Latin School, but I have no reason to doubt that it is the same with all the others. The support of the schools is justly regarded as the first care of the city government; and the public expenditure upon them is greater in proportion to the population than in any city in the world. I had occasion, last week, to make a statement on this subject, to a gentleman from a distant State, and when I informed him that the richest individual in Boston could not, with all his money, buy better schooling for his son, than the public schools furnish to the child of the poorest citizen, he was lost in admiration. I do not think the people of Boston themselves realize, as they ought, what a privilege they possess in having that education brought to their doors, for which parents in some other parts of the country are obliged to send their children a hundred or a thousand miles from home; for we may well repeat the inquiry of Cicero, "Ubi enim aut jucundius morarentur quam in patria, aut pudicius continerentur quam sub oculis parentum, aut minore sumptu quam domi?"

In a word, sir, when the Public Library shall be completed, (and thanks to the liberality of the city government it is making the most satisfactory progress,) which I have always regarded as the necessary supplement to our schools, I do really think that Boston will possess an educational system superior to any other in the world.

Let me, sir, before I sit down, congratulate the boys and girls in their success, who, as medal scholars are privileged to be here. The reward they have now received for their early efforts is designed as an incentive to future exertion; without which the Franklin medal will be rather a disgrace than a credit to them. But let them also bear their honors with meekness. Of their schoolmates of both sexes who have failed to obtain these coveted distinctions, some, less endowed with natural talent, have probably made exertions equally if not more meritorious; some have failed through ill health. Some, whom you now leave a good way behind, will come straining after you and perhaps surpass you in the great race of life. Let your present superior good fortune, my young friends, have no other effect than to inspire you with considerateness and kind feeling toward your schoolmates. Let not the dark passions, and base, selfish, and party feelings which lead grown men to hate and vilify, and seek to injure each other, find entrance into your young and innocent bosoms. Let these early honors lead you to a more strict observance of the eleventh commandment, toward those whom you have distanced in these school day rivalries, or who, from any cause, have been prevented from sharing with you the enjoyments of this day; and as you may not all know exactly what the eleventh commandment is, I will end a poor speech by telling you a good story:

The celebrated Archbishop Usher was, in his younger days, wrecked on the coast of Ireland, at a place where his person and character were alike unknown. Stripped of everything, he wandered to the house of a dignitary of the church, in search of shelter and relief, craving assistance as a brother clergyman. The dignitary, struck with his squalid appearance after the wreck, distrusted his tale, and doubted his character; and said that, so far from being a clergyman, he did not believe he could even tell how many commandments there were. "I can at once satisfy you," said the Archbishop, "that I am not the ignorant impostor you take me for. There are eleven commandments." This answer confirmed the dignitary in his suspicions, and he replied with a sneer, "Indeed, there are but ten commandments in my bible; tell me the eleventh and I will believe you." "Here it is," said the Archbishop, "A new commandment give I unto you, that ye love one another."

He prayeth best, who loveth best
All things both great and small;
For the dear God who loveth us,
He made and loveth all.

S. T. Coleridge.

SCHOOL-HOUSES CONVERTED INTO MONUMENTS OF PUBLIC SERVICE.

The practice begins to prevail of distinguishing the public schools of different localities of the same city by naming them after individuals who may happen to hold office at the time of instituting the school, or erecting the building, or, which we deem far better, after some of those noble men who, in the infancy of the state, laid the foundations of its prosperity by providing for the education of the whole people. In no way can their names pass so universally into the household words of a community. We select two beautiful instances of well-deserved commemoration of this kind.

WINTHROP SCHOOL-HOUSE, BOSTON.

The spacious, commodious, and elegant school-house recently erected in Boston, at an expense, including the site, of \$90,000, was dedicated with appropriate exercises, and called after the name of the first Governor of Massachusetts,—the WINTHROP SCHOOL-HOUSE. Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, a lineal and worthy descendant of John Winthrop, made an address on the occasion, substantially as follows:—

I need not say that I have felt something more than a common interest in this scene. As a mere citizen of Boston, born upon her soil, educated in her public schools, and bound to her by a thousand ties of affection and gratitude, which no time can sever, I should, indeed, have found abundant reason for gratification and for pride in seeing her engaged, in the person of her chief magistrate, in dedicating so spacious and noble an edifice to the cause of popular education. As a humble but sincere friend to free government and republican liberty, too, I could not have failed to rejoice at beholding another buttress added to the bulwarks which are to save them from overthrow and downfall. For, my friends, it cannot be too often repeated, trite and common-place as it may sound, that these free institutions of ours can rest securely on no other basis than that of intelligence and virtue; and that intelligence and virtue can be disseminated and inculcated by no other agencies than the school and the church. Our school-houses and churches—these are the true towers and bulwarks of a republic, and the only standing army of freedom is that innumerable host of children who are in process of being trained up, in our sabbath schools and our week-day schools, in the fear of God, in the love of their neighbor, and in the elements of all useful knowledge and all sound learning.* It may well be a subject for joy, then, to every patriotic heart,—and I hope mine is one,—to see our cities and towns vying with each other, not like those of the old world, in the sumptuousness of their private mansions, or the magnificence of their government halls, but in the elegance and spaciousness and completeness of their common school-houses.

But, my friends, it would be affectation in me to conceal that I have another and peculiar interest in this occasion. I am sure that I need feel no delicacy in speaking of the distinguished person in whose honor this school has been primarily named. Five entire generations have now intervened between him and myself. More than two hundred years,—a long time in your little calendar, my young friends,—have passed away since he was laid beneath the sod in what is now King's Chapel Burying Ground, within a few feet of the City Hall, where a humble tomb-stone may be seen, bearing the inscription "John Winthrop, 1649." my relation to him, though direct, is thus almost too remote to subject anything I may say of him to the imputation of being dictated by any mere partiality or family pride. His name, too, is an historical name, upon which the judgment of the world has long ago been irrevocably pronounced.

Coming over here in 1630, as the leader and Governor of the Massachusetts

* On another occasion Mr. Winthrop characterized our public schools thus: "Other nations may boast of their magnificent gems and monster diamonds. Our Kohinoor is our Common School System. This is our 'mountain of light,'—not snatched, indeed, as a prize from a barbarous foe, nor destined to deck a royal brow, or to irradiate a Crystal Palace, but whose pure and penetrating ray illumines every brow, and enlightens every mind, and cheers every heart and every hearthstone in the land, and which supplies, from its exhaustless mines, a ornaments of grace unto the head, and chains upon the neck "of every son and daughter of Massachusetts."

Company, with their Charter in his hand, he was identified, perhaps beyond all other men, at once with the foundation of our Commonwealth and of our city. And there is not a page of our Colonial Records, or of our Town Records, during the nineteen years of his living here, which does not bear testimony to his labors and his zeal for the public service. The very first entry in the records of Boston, if I mistake not, was in the handwriting, still extant, of John Winthrop. The first voluntary subscription for the support of Free Schools, in 1636, bore his name, as one of the three equal and largest contributors. The first statute for the establishment of a system of Education in New England, was passed under his auspices as Governor of the Commonwealth. The neighboring Common, the pride of our city, the play-place of our children, the source of so much health and happiness to us all, was originally laid out while he was at the head of the old Town Government, and by a Committee of which he was Chairman. The evidences of his services and of his sacrifices might be multiplied on every side. He spent his whole strength and his whole substance in the service of the infant Colony, and died, at last, a poor man; poor in everything but that good name which is above all price.

But, it is not so much what he did as what he was, that entitles him to the grateful remembrance of the sons and daughters of Boston, and of Massachusetts. He was a man of the purest life, of the sternest integrity, of the loftiest moral and religious principle; and, he has left an example of moderation and magnanimity, of virtue and piety, second to none which can be found in the annals of our country. His residence was near the site of the old South Church,—his garden, I believe, including the land upon which that venerated edifice now stands,—and it would scarcely be too much to say, that the atmosphere within those hallowed walls, purified as it is by the weekly prayers and praises of a thousand worshippers, is hardly more pure than when it was the atmosphere of John Winthrop's mansion.

I know not how, Mr. Mayor, I can do anything more appropriate to this occasion, or furnish any more striking illustration of the principles of him whose name has been inscribed upon these walls, than to read you a few brief sentences from one of his own letters. The letter is dated on the 16th of October, 1622, and was addressed to his eldest son, then a lad of 16 years old, who was pursuing his studies at Trinity College, Dublin. It furnishes ample proof that the writer was not a man to be satisfied with any mere intellectual education; but, that his first care was for the moral and religious instruction of the young.

"*My dearly beloved Son* :—I do usually begin and end my letters with that which I would have the *alpha* and *omega* of all thy thoughts and endeavors, viz. : the blessing of the Almighty to be upon thee,—not after the common valuation of God's blessings, like the warming of the Sun to a hale, stirring body,—but that blessing which faith finds in the sweet promises of God and his free favor, whereby the soul hath a place of joy and refuge in all storms of adversity. I beseech the Lord to open thine eyes, that thou mayest see the riches of His grace, which will abate the account of all earthly vanities; and, if it please Him to give thee once a taste of the sweetness of the true wisdom, which is from above, it will season thy studies, and give a new temper to thy soul. Remember, therefore, what the wisest saith, The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom. Lay this foundation, and thou shalt be wise indeed."

Such was the career, and such the character of Governor Winthrop, and I need add nothing more, I am persuaded, to show that his name is worthy of being given to your school. And now, my young friends, it is for you, in your turn, to decide whether the school shall be worthy of the name. No names, however distinguished; no buildings, however convenient or costly; no committees, however enlightened and vigilant; no instructors, however accomplished and devoted, can make a good school, without the hearty coöperation, and willing compliance, and faithful study of the scholars. Let me conclude, then, by expressing the hope that you will not be unmindful of your opportunities, that you will not be unmindful of the example of him by whose name you are to be designated; and that, by your diligence, your good conduct, your fidelity to your duties, your reverence for the laws of God and of man, and your observance of the lessons of your instructors, you may strive to render the Winthrop School as much a model school in its internal condition and discipline, as it certainly seems to be in its external structure and arrangement. And, may the blessing of Heaven be upon your efforts!

EATON SCHOOL-HOUSE, NEW HAVEN.

The new Public School, established in New Haven, as well as the building recently erected for its accommodation, and which in location, spaciousness and furniture, is not surpassed by any similar structure in the whole country—bears the name of one honored in the annals of New England, as well as in the colony of New Haven. The School Committee in their annual report for 1855 remark:—

The name was given to this school to commemorate the character and public services of Theophilus Eaton, the first Governor of the Colony of New Haven, especially those services which were devoted to the advancement of popular education in the town and colony of New Haven. It is, doubtless, proper to add in this place a few other facts in the history of this good man, whose name deserves to be held in grateful remembrance by every citizen of New Haven. Mather, in his *Magnalia*, states that he was born at Stony-Stratford, in Oxfordshire, England, about 1592, and was the eldest son of the minister at that place. At school, in Coventry, to which place his father removed, he became intimate with John Davenport, and the two in after years (says the Hon. Henry Barnard) "established in New Haven, before it ceased to be an independent colony, a system of public education, at that time without a parallel in any part of the world, and not surpassed in its universal application to all classes, rich and poor, at any period in the subsequent history of the State." The second wife of Governor Eaton was the widow of David Yale, and after his death she returned to England, with her little grandson, Elihu Yale, whose benefactions, in later life, to the College in his native town, have rendered his name immortal. Hubbard, in his *History of New England*, says of Governor Eaton, "He had in him great gifts, and as many excellencies as are usually found in any one man. He had an excellent princely face and port, commanding respect from all others; he was a good scholar, a traveler, a great reader, of an exceeding steady and even spirit, not easily moved to passion, and standing unshaken in his principles when once fixed upon, of a profound judgment, full of majesty and authority in his judicatures, so that it was a vain thing to offer to brave him out, and yet in his ordinary conversation, and among friends, of such pleasantness of behavior, and such facility and fecundity of harmless wit as hardly can be paralleled; but above all, he was seasoned with religion, close in closet duties, solemn and substantial in family worship, a diligent and constant attendant upon all public ordinances, taking notes of the sermons he heard, exactly, and improving them accordingly; in short, approving himself in the whole course of his life, in faithfulness, and wisdom, and inoffensive before God and man."

Gov. Winthrop in his *Journal* says, "no character in the annals of New England is of purer fame than that of Theophilus Eaton, Governor of the Colony of New Haven from its settlement to his death, by twenty annual elections—the only instance of such an honor ever conferred. That his talents were adequate to the station might be confidently concluded from the fact of his prior service, several years, as representative of Charles I, at the court of Denmark; and the long administration of an infant State without a rival, is irrefragable proof of his prudence and virtue." All the original writers of our history are abundant in his praise, and the later and more judicious inquirers are satisfied with the evidence.

The building was dedicated with appropriate services of prayer and praise, in the presence of a crowded auditory, on the 29th of August, 1855. Addresses were made by James F. Babcock, Esq., Prof. Hooker, Rev. W. T. Eustis, Capt. Foote, of the United States Navy, Prof. Silliman and President Woolsey, of Yale College. President Woolsey, among other remarks, said:

"It is sometimes charged upon College men that they take no interest in common school education. This is hardly true. The most that can be said of us is that we have no time to engage in care for its development, and must leave it to be provided for by our fellow citizens. Certainly that college man would be very

silly who felt no sympathy, and recognized no importance in other educational movements. That State is in danger in which only a few men are educated, and they to the height of refinement. The State must have an education for ALL, such as the interests of the parents demand. Therefore, I rejoice to be here to-day, and see this building.

I rejoice, too, in its expense, in its decorations and furnishings. They show how much interest is felt in education in New Haven. What we pay highly for we value. Another thing pleasant to me to-day, is the recognition I find here between science and religion, as shown in the opening of the exercises with prayer.

Again: I feel pleasure in the name of this school building. It was fitting that the prosperous merchant, the first Governor of this colony, should be thus commemorated. It is too, a pleasant thing, in looking back, to find that four years after the founding of this colony, in 1642, under Theophilus Eaton, a free school was founded, and that in 1648 it was voted to establish a collegiate school. This latter movement was not effected until more than fifty years after. But soon after, through the instrumentality of Gov. Hopkins, Gov. Eaton's son-in-law, an institution was here established, which still exists, which is older than the College, older of course than our United States government, and older than most of the present European governments: I refer to the Hopkins Grammar School."

ASTOR LIBRARY, IN NEW YORK.

From the Seventh Annual Report of the Trustees, signed by Washington Irving, Samuel B. Ruggles, and others, it appears that to the date of the Report (Dec. 31, 1855,) the whole amount expended, from the beginning, for books and binding, has been \$120,331. The number of volumes is about ninety thousand. The total cost of the present library building, including the site, and also the equipment in shelving, &c., has been \$120,352. The productive fund invested in bonds and mortgages is \$201,500.

The difficulty which the Trustees were apprehending from the rapid exhaustion of space devoted to books, (13,000 feet,) was occasioned by their success in making the necessary purchases at very reasonable prices, and, in fact, on much better terms than they can expect hereafter. It has thus enabled them nearly to fill the shelves of the library edifice, within the first two years after its completion, and to reach the limits of its capacity, much sooner than they had anticipated. The dimensions of the building, sixty-five feet in width on Lafayette Place, had been particularly prescribed by Mr. John Jacob Astor, the founder of the Library, and left them no discretion in that respect.

Under these circumstances, the Trustees have peculiar gratification, in being able to state to the Legislature, that the embarrassment they were beginning to feel for the too rapid increase of their literary wealth, has been removed by a signal act of liberality and forecast by Mr. William B. Astor. At the meeting of the Board on the 31st of October last, that gentleman laid before it three deeds of conveyance, duly authenticated and recorded, to the Trustees of the Library in their corporate capacity, of three parcels of land lying on Lafayette Place, immediately adjacent to the present building on its northerly side, embracing, in the aggregate, an area of eighty feet wide, in front and rear, and one hundred and twenty feet deep on each side, and which lands Mr. Astor had purchased from their proprietors, for the sum of \$30,476.

Besides making this timely and generous donation, Mr. William B. Astor has announced his intention of donating books from time to time. Thus the munificent example of the father is followed by the son.

LIBRARY FOR FACTORY OPERATIVES IN LAWRENCE, MASS.

The following extract from a letter received by the Editor explains a very interesting movement for the intellectual improvement of the operatives in the Pacific Mills, in Lawrence, Mass.

"We have not forgotten your visit here for a day and a night, two years since. From your suggestion arose the plan adopted for requiring the deduction of one cent each week from the wages of every person employed here. This penny a week, gives access to the library, which consists of 1600 on 1800 vols.—commenced with an appropriation from the directors of the corporation of \$1,000, and the donation of an individual friend of some 100 or 200 vols.—on three days of each week, at the noon intermission of labor, and one or two hours extra at the close of labor on Saturday, P. M. With a portion of this income, now amounting to about \$750 annually, the current expenses of the library are paid for covering, re-binding books, &c.,—the corporation having thus far provided a room and the librarian,—and such additions to the collection as are thought best, amounting to perhaps \$300 each year, which, in time, will give us a large and valuable library.

The remainder of the income is expended in providing lectures and musical entertainments, with now and then an exhibition of some good panorama. This year the management of the whole has been in the hands of a committee appointed by the Pacific Mills Library Association, which is composed of all the operatives. Their selection of lecturers has met with very general approbation, and the course has been considered superior to the one sustained by the citizens generally. Five hundred persons, and sometimes more, attend weekly.

The entertainments are the most attractive, naturally, drawing together in some instances, one thousand of our people.

My impressions are favorable to the plan adopted, to sustain our library and lectures, and I am fully of the opinion that the influence is good, and that we secure a better class of operatives. Every stranger that visits us to lecture seems greatly pleased with the system and the character of the audience." w. c. c.

In the practical working of the Pacific Mills Library Association, the following objects are secured.

1. A valuable library from the start—something which represents both money, and sources of instruction and pleasure—and that placed in a room, easy of access, well lighted, and warmed; besides access to occasional lectures, concerts, and panoramas. Here is a *quid pro quo*—an equivalent for the deduction made on the wages of each week.

2. A plan of membership and management which includes every person connected with the establishment, either as capitalist or laborer—thus extinguishing all suspicion of exclusiveness or assumed patronage.

3. A mode of support, which, while it taxes all, does it to an extent so trifling that no one is deprived of any physical comfort, and yet so large in the aggregate as to yield an income equal to many associations whose annual fees are at least fourfold as great.

We believe a plan of this kind modified according to circumstances, is better than a Free Library, or Free Lectures—as we will take occasion to show hereafter.

We insert in this place, two Tables referred to on page 445, and which should have been printed in Article III.

TABLE IX.—DEAF AND DUMB, BLIND, INSANE AND IDIOTIC PERSONS IN 1870.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	DEAF AND DUMB.					BLIND.					INSANE.					IDIOTIC.				
	White.	F.	M.	F.	M.	White.	F.	M.	F.	M.	White.	F.	M.	F.	M.	White.	F.	M.	F.	M.
	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.
Alabama.....	146	1.39	79	1.18	67	163	1.15	84	1.04	79	163	1.15	84	1.04	79	163	1.15	84	1.04	79
Alaska.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Arizona.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Arkansas.....	44	1.37	21	1.12	23	139	1.02	68	1.02	71	139	1.02	68	1.02	71	139	1.02	68	1.02	71
California.....	100	1.40	51	1.16	49	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74
Colorado.....	263	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132
Connecticut.....	911	1.74	451	1.21	460	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738
Delaware.....	621	1.11	311	1.04	310	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549
District of Columbia.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
Florida.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
Georgia.....	116	1.39	58	1.16	58	163	1.39	81	1.16	82	163	1.39	81	1.16	82	163	1.39	81	1.16	82
Idaho.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Illinois.....	801	1.18	401	1.18	400	1,132	1.18	566	1.18	566	1,132	1.18	566	1.18	566	1,132	1.18	566	1.18	566
Indiana.....	328	1.97	164	1.97	164	470	1.97	235	1.97	235	470	1.97	235	1.97	235	470	1.97	235	1.97	235
Iowa.....	122	1.16	61	1.16	61	154	1.16	77	1.16	77	154	1.16	77	1.16	77	154	1.16	77	1.16	77
Kansas.....	44	1.37	21	1.12	23	139	1.02	68	1.02	71	139	1.02	68	1.02	71	139	1.02	68	1.02	71
Kentucky.....	100	1.40	51	1.16	49	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74
Louisiana.....	263	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132
Maine.....	911	1.74	451	1.21	460	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738
Maryland.....	621	1.11	311	1.04	310	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549
Massachusetts.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
Michigan.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
Minnesota.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mississippi.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Missouri.....	44	1.37	21	1.12	23	139	1.02	68	1.02	71	139	1.02	68	1.02	71	139	1.02	68	1.02	71
Montana.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nebraska.....	100	1.40	51	1.16	49	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74
Nevada.....	263	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132
New Hampshire.....	911	1.74	451	1.21	460	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738
New Jersey.....	621	1.11	311	1.04	310	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549
New Mexico.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
New York.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
North Carolina.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
North Dakota.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ohio.....	100	1.40	51	1.16	49	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74
Oklahoma.....	263	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132
Oregon.....	911	1.74	451	1.21	460	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738
Pennsylvania.....	621	1.11	311	1.04	310	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549
Rhode Island.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
South Carolina.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
South Dakota.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tennessee.....	100	1.40	51	1.16	49	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74
Texas.....	263	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132
Vermont.....	911	1.74	451	1.21	460	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738	1,397	1.397	738	1.397	738
Virginia.....	621	1.11	311	1.04	310	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549	1,094	1.11	545	1.04	549
Washington.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
West Virginia.....	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5	10	1.0	5	1.0	5
Wisconsin.....	100	1.40	51	1.16	49	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74	144	1.44	70	1.44	74
Wyoming.....	263	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132	333	2.83	131	1.85	132
Yukon.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total.....	3,071	4.08	1,536	3.10	1,535	9,711	4.51	4,819	4.51	4,892	9,711	4.51	4,819	4.51	4,892	9,711	4.51	4,819	4.51	4,892

COOPER SCIENTIFIC UNION IN NEW YORK.

The large structure which Peter Cooper, Esq., is erecting at the head of the Bowery, in New York, in the immediate vicinity of the Astor and Mercantile Libraries, is so far advanced towards completion, that the munificent projector applied to the Legislature at its last session for an Act incorporating thirteen Trustees named by him, to receive the estate and apply its revenues "to the advancement of science, art, philosophy and letters;"—in other words, to the purposes of a great National University, for there is no limitation as to the kind or extent of instruction to be provided by the Trustees, or to the section of country from which students may attend. The Bill reported by a Committee of the Senate, and passed, unanimously by that body, exempts the property, [which will cost, when the building is finished, and including the present value of the lot, near \$800,000,] from taxation, and empowers the Trustees to receive and expend the revenues derived from the rent of any portion of the premises, and from any bequests or property of which they may become possessed, and to confer degrees "for proficiency in science, art, philosophy, and letters." The Board is subject to the visitation of the Supreme Court of the State, and must report annually to the Common Council of the City, to the Legislature of the State, and the Regents of the University as to the revenues, expenditures, and condition, generally, of the Institution. The Bill, as passed by the Senate, changes the name of the Institution from the *Union*, which is engraved in large letters on the front of the building, to *The Cooper Scientific Union*, against the earnestly expressed wishes of the founder. The Bill was not reached in time to be acted on by the House of Representatives.

Of this munificent consecration of so large a property to scientific and educational purposes, during the lifetime of the donor, Dr. Lieber, of South Carolina College, in a note to his lecture before the Columbia Athenæum, remarks:

"While these pages were passing through the press, the author received the act by which the Legislature of New York has incorporated the institution founded by Peter Cooper, Esq., merchant and manufacturer in the city of New York, for the promotion of the arts, sciences, literature and general knowledge among both sexes, and in the different classes of society. It is near its completion, and when finished will have received from its founder values to the amount of half a million of dollars. These he gives with his living palm, not with the stiffened hand of bequest. To call such a gift princely or even imperial liberality, were simply using a sinking figure of speech. Princes never bestow such gifts of that which is their own. May we not call it American republican munificence? No Adrian disburses this sum from the treasury, filled with the tribute of aching provinces; no Napoleon lavishes it from the collection of severe taxes; no Guy bequeaths it to soothe the smarting memory of disreputable traffic; no testator distributes what he could not take with him; but a simple citizen and kindly lover of his species, gives what he has earned by active and by honest trade, in the full vigor of a life that has always been garnished with deeds of charity and public spirit. An act like this is an event, and belongs to history; otherwise it might be indelicate to state that the mentioned sum is not the tithe, but the third or fourth part of the wealth which the generous donor's own industry has accumulated with the blessing of Providence. Nor are to him the words *Wife and Children* mere terms without the thrilling directness of reality. His public largeness does not come from private loneliness; and it required the sovereign power of the Legislature to force the name of Cooper on the Union, that is, the Union of Arts, Sciences, and General Knowledge."

Mr. Cooper has not made known the specific plan upon which he designs his trust to be administered.



THE COOPER SCIENTIFIC UNION, NEW YORK.

XVIII. OBITUARY.

T. ROMEYN BECK, M. D., LL. D., died at Albany, on the 26th of December, 1855, aged 65.

Dr. Beck, was born in Schenectady, N. Y., August 11th, 1791, entered Union College in 1803, and graduated there at the age of sixteen, when he immediately began the study of Medicine. In 1817, he withdrew from the practice of medicine and accepted the post of Principal of the Albany Academy, which he continued to hold till 1848, and during the more than thirty years of his administration the Academy sustained a reputation second to no similar institution in the state. In 1826, he was made Professor of Medical Jurisprudence at Fairfield Medical College, where he had been lecturer on the same subject, and Professor of the Institutes of Medicine since 1815. He continued to occupy these chairs until the abandonment of the college, in 1840. In 1841, Dr. Beck was appointed to the office of Secretary of the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York, a position of great honor and trust, which he continued to occupy till his death.

The Regents have a supervisory charge of the educational interests of the State, and are required to make an annual report of the condition of all the colleges and academies under their care. His reports during the period of his incumbency are not only voluminous, but also equally models of accuracy and compactness. But the supervision of colleges and academies does not, by any means, limit the powers and responsibilities of the Regents. To them is intrusted the care of the State Library, of the State Cabinet of Natural History, and also the management of much of the foreign correspondence, and all the literary or scientific international exchanges. Most of these various duties devolved officially upon Dr. Beck. To his earnest devotion thereto, and eminent qualifications, the State is indebted for its large and judiciously selected Library, and especially for its unrivaled collection of works on American History.

He was one of the originators of the plan for the Geological Survey of the State, became one of its most ardent supporters, and under successive governors was intrusted with much of the supervision of the work; and, in short, for forty years there was scarce any leading measure for the promotion of education or of medical and general science, in which he did not take an active part, and become as it were, identified.

Dr. Beck's "Elements of Medical Jurisprudence," in two volumes, octavo, was first published in 1823, and has already passed through five American, four London, and one German, editions. To him is certainly due the high credit, not merely of rousing public attention to an important and neglected subject, but also of presenting a work upon it, which will, probably, never be entirely superseded.

PROFESSOR LADOC THOMPSON, of the University of Vermont, died in Burlington, Vt., January 19th, in his 60th year.

He was born in Bridgewater, Vt, in 1796, and at an early day showed that strong propensity for observing facts in Natural Science, and for mathematical applications which after he had arrived to manhood became his distinguishing characteristic. He graduated at the University of Vermont, in 1823, was ordained Deacon in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1836, but his ministrations as a preacher were only occasional, owing to the instability of his health.

At different times he occupied himself as an instructor of youth but his chief employment was that of independent investigation and the labors of authorship. His wri-

tings are perhaps more familiar to the people of Vermont, than those of any other man. To say nothing of his smaller useful works intended for schools, and his preparation of the astronomical part of the calendar so familiar to thousands for more than thirty years, his *History and Gazetteer of the State* is specially noticeable. The *Gazetteer* was published as early as 1824, and continued to accumulate facts pertaining to that subject. In 1842, he published his large work on the *Natural History of the State*, on its civil and political history, and that of its various institutions, followed by an enlarged and improved edition of the *Gazetteer*. A valuable appendix was issued in 1853.

In 1853 he was appointed State Naturalist, and began to institute a survey embracing the Physical Geography, Geology, Mineralogy, Botany, and Zoology of the State.

His work was already far advanced and would have been of great value to the State and to Science. As it is, we hope it will not be lost to the public.

JOSEPH CURTIS, a native of Newtown, Conn., and a distinguished and venerable friend of Public Education, died on Saturday, April 12th, 1856, in his 74th year.

Mr. Curtis removed at the age of 16 to New York, where he continued to reside till his death. He was an active member of the "Manumission Society in 1817, and for his efforts in securing the Gradual Emancipation Act received two massive silver pitchers as a token of their appreciation. He was active in the establishment of the Society for the prevention of vagrancy, and the leading spirit in developing the New York House of Refuge. In 1820 he established at Flatbush, L. I., the first Sunday School ever instituted for free blacks. Mr. Curtis was one of the founders, and a Trustee of the Public School Society for 33 years, and when in 1853, the old Public School Society was merged in the present system, he was one of the fifteen commissioners chosen to represent that Society in the Board of Education, and in that capacity secured universal respect and affectionate regard.

JOSEPH MCKEEN, LL. D., died on the 12th of April, 1856; was born in Antrim, Vt., and was, at the time of his death, in his 65 year. He removed to New York about the year 1818, and engaged in teaching, at first in a private, and afterwards for a long time in public school, No. 5, situated in Mott Street. In 1848, he was selected to fill the honorable and responsible post of Superintendent of city schools, the duties of which he performed with marked ability. In 1854 the duties of the office were divided, and Mr. S. S. Randall, was made City Superintendent, and Mr. Mc Keen, and Mr. Seton elected his assistants. But he spent no less time than before in the schools, and labored no less arduously for their good than before. He was busily engaged in the semi-annual examinations, when he was taken down with his last illness. For his labors as an unflinching advocate, at once judicious and able, of common schools for a quarter of a century, he has exercised an influence which has made his name well known and honored throughout the country.

NICHOLAS TILLINGHAST, the first Principal of the State Normal School at Bridgewater, Mass., died in that town on the 10th of April, 1856. He was educated at West Point, and brought to his post as a teacher of teachers, a moral and mental discipline in himself—a sense of duty in every position, which left its impress on every graduate of that school. We shall have occasion to speak of his educational labors more at length hereafter, in connection with a history of the Bridgewater Normal School.

ROBERT KELLY, one of the early and most efficient promoters of the Free Academy of the City of New York, died on the 28th of April, 1856, in the 47th year of his age. He graduated at Columbia College with distinguished honor, and although he soon afterwards engaged in mercantile pursuits, he continued to be a diligent student, and when he retired from business in 1836, he had mastered eight different languages. He was the second President of the Board of Education for New York City, and one of the Regents of the State University, and President of the Trustees of the House of Refuge. It was in discharging his duties in the office last named, that he took cold, which ended in his sudden and much deplored death.

XVIII. EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS.

We can do nothing more than give the titles of the Educational Journals which have been received since the issue of the March number.

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF AND DUMB; edited by Samuel Porter. Hartford. Vol. VIII. April, 1856. 64 pages quarterly.

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, AND COLLEGE REVIEW. Absalom Peters, D. D., and Hon. S. S. Randall. Vol. 1, No. 4. April, 1856. 96 pages, monthly.

THE CONNECTICUT COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL. Vol. XI. April, 1856. 32 pages. Hon. John D. Philbrick, Resident Editor.

THE ILLINOIS TEACHER; Organ of the State Teachers' Institute. April, 1856. E. E. Hovey, Editor, Peoria. 32 pages, monthly. \$1.00.

THE INDIANA SCHOOL JOURNAL. March, 1856. 32 pages, monthly. Geo. P. Stone, Editor, Indianapolis.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION; Upper Canada, Toronto. Vol. IX. April, 1856. Mr. J. George Hodgins, Toronto. 16 pages.

THE MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER and Journal of Home and School Education. Vol. IX. No. 4. April, 1856. 48 pages. Prof. A. Crosby, Resident Editor, Boston. \$1.00.

THE MICHIGAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, and TEACHERS' MAGAZINE. Vol. III, No. 4. April, 1856. 32 pages. John M. Gregory, Editor, Detroit. \$1.00.

NEW YORK TEACHER. Alexander Wilder, Resident Editor, Albany. Vol. V, No. 7, May, 1856. 48 pages.

NORMAL SCHOOL ADVOCATE. Vol. I, No. 4. for April, 1856. Lebanon, Ohio. 12 pages, monthly. 50 cts.

THE OHIO JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Vol. V, No. 4. April, 1856. Rev. A. Smyth, Editor, Columbus. 32 pages, monthly. \$1.00.

THE PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOL JOURNAL. Tho. H. Bartowes, Editor, Lancaster. April, 1856. 32 pages.

THE RHODE ISLAND SCHOOLMASTER. Vol. II, No. 2. April, 1856. Hon. Robert Allyn, Editor, Providence. 32 pages. \$1.00.

WESTERN COLLEGE INTELLIGENCER. Issued by the Society for the promotion of Collegiate and Theological Education at the West. Rev. Theron Baldwin, Editor. New York, Feb. 1856. 8 pages, quarto.

THE WISCONSIN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Vol. I, No. 1. March, 1856. L. L. Packard, Editor, Racine. 32 pages. \$1.00.

SUPPLEMENTARY NUMBER.

The Publisher of the American Journal of Education will send to the Subscribers, without charge, a SUPPLEMENTARY NUMBER to Volume I. Containing

The Title page, Contents, and Index; an Account of the Editor's labors in Connecticut and Rhode Island; a Catalogue of Educational Books for Teachers; and Publisher's Advertisements of Text Books, forwarded for insertion in this Number.

Barnard's
AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

SUPPLEMENTARY NUMBER TO VOLUME I.

CIRCULAR.

THE undersigned, publisher of the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION edited by Henry Barnard, LL. D., begs leave to call the attention of teachers, and friends of improvement in systems, institutions, and methods of education in every part of the country to the following points.

I. The *first volume* of the Journal was completed by the publication of the Number (4) for May—and has more than realized the promises made in the Prospectus issued by the undersigned and the Editor, as to the number of pages, and embellishments which the several numbers would contain. The table of Contents and Index to the principal topics discussed, and statistical tables and summaries, herewith forwarded, are referred to as the best evidence of the wide range of educational discussion and intelligence which this Periodical embraces. It is believed that no one volume in the English Language contains a greater number of able essays on important subjects, by writers of acknowledged ability, and of large practical experience, or a larger amount of reliable educational statistics.

II. The *second volume* will continue to be published by the undersigned, under the same editorial charge, with the same contributors, and on the same general plan pursued in Volume I. The volume will consist of three numbers, to be issued on the 15th of July, September, and November, 1856. Each number will contain on an average at least 200 pages, and will be embellished by at least one portrait of an eminent teacher, or promoter and benefactor of education, literature and science, and with wood cuts illustrative of recent improvements in building, apparatus, and furniture, designed for educational purposes. The three numbers will constitute a volume [II.] of at least 600 pages, and it will be the study of the Editor and Publisher, to make it in every respect worthy of the cause of American Education, to the advancement of which it will be exclusively devoted.

The American Journal of Education will embody the matured views and varied experience of statesmen, educators and teachers, in perfecting the organization, administration, instruction and discipline of schools of every grade; the history and present condition of educational systems, institutions and agencies in every civilized country, and the current discussion of the great subject, by the friends of improvement, in every part of our country, whether interested in public or private schools, or in the higher or elementary branches of knowledge.

III. As a pledge of the ability, zeal and devotion to the cause of popular and
Vol. I, No. 4.—43.

universal education, which the Editor will continue to apply to this national and American enterprise, the undersigned will publish in a Supplementary Number a tribute to his Educational Labors by a committee of the State Teachers' Association of Connecticut, on the occasion of his resigning the office of Superintendent of Common Schools in that State—and first published in the January Number of the Connecticut Common School Journal for 1855, with a Portrait, for which he was invited to sit by the Association. The Supplementary Number will be paged so as to admit of its being bound up with Volume I, and will be sent to subscribers free of expense.

IV. The undersigned would take this occasion to announce his intention to keep on hand and for sale, copies of all standard publications on the History, Organization, Administration, Instruction and Discipline of Schools, and he has made arrangements to procure with all possible dispatch the latest publications in the English, French and German Languages. A list of Books on Education from Barnard's School Architecture will be found on pages 739-770.

V. He would also announce that he is the Agent for the Holbrook Apparatus Company, and refers the readers to the advertisement on pages 771-778 for a description of articles which he is prepared to furnish in any quantity.

TERMS OF AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

For a single copy one year, (1856,) or for Volumes I. and II., (numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7,)	\$3.00
For Volume I., or Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, and Supplementary Number, bound in Cloth,	2.00
For Volume II., numbers 5, 6, and 7 as published, and without being a subscriber to Volume I.,	2.00

Exchange Papers and Catalogues should be directed to *Barnard's American Journal of Education*, Hartford, Conn.

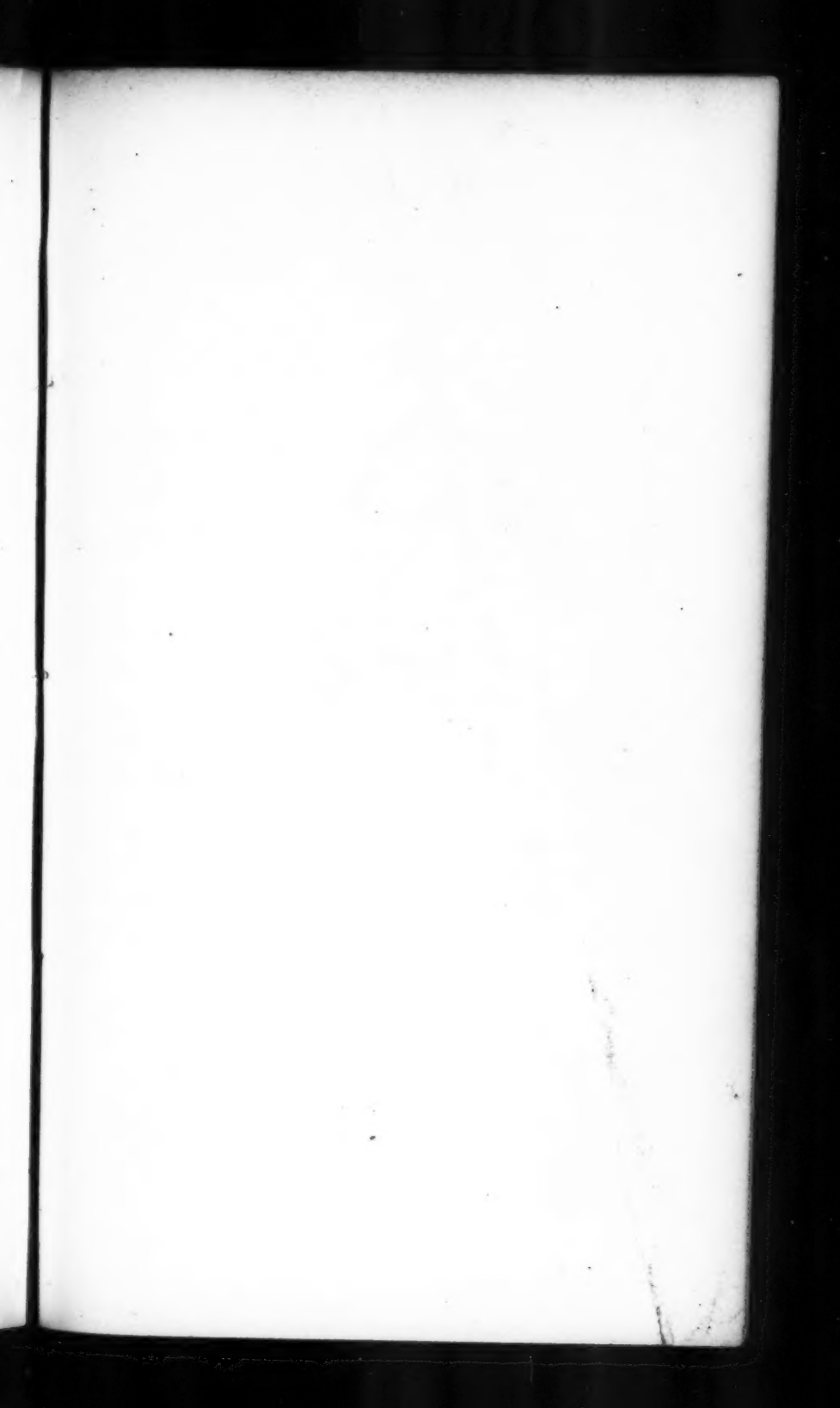
All communications intended for or relating to the contents of the Journal should be directed to the Editor. All business letters should be directed to the undersigned.

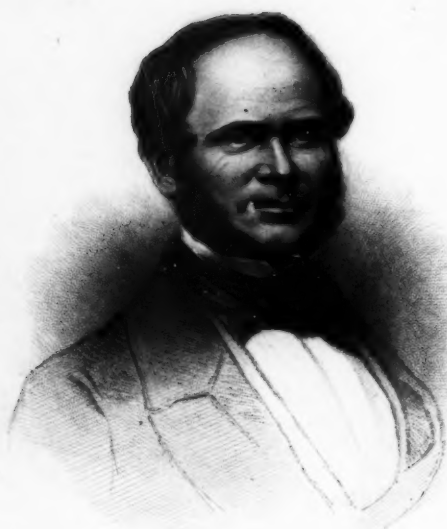
A circular containing the Contents and Index of Volume I., and a specimen number of the Journal will be sent by mail to any one making request for the same.

F. C. BROWNELL,

MAY 15, 1856.

HARTFORD, CONN.





Engraved by E. W. Smith.

Henry Barnard

Superintendent of Common Schools, Hartford, Conn., 31 December 1854

Engraved for the Connecticut STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION.



HENRY BARNARD.

[Republished from the Connecticut Common School Journal for January, 1853.]

IN compliance with the often and urgently repeated advice of his physicians that he should retire, for a season at least, from the confinement, anxieties, and wearying details of all official connection with schools, and with the intention, as soon and as far as his health will admit, of devoting himself to certain educational undertakings of a national character, Henry Barnard resigned, at the beginning of the present month, the office of Principal of the State Normal School, and Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut.

While we extend the hand of welcome and the pledge of coöperation to his successor,* and entertain the sure conviction that the good cause will go forward rapidly, and in the right direction under his leadership, we can not but express the regret which we feel in common with every good citizen, teacher, and active promoter of educational improvement, that Mr. Barnard, who has been for so many years our guide, counselor, and friend, should retire at all, and especially with shattered health, from the field of his many labors at a time when his long deferred hopes of a better day for our common schools are beginning to be realized, and the seed which he scattered with a bountiful broadcast, is now springing up into an abundant harvest. But we will not forget in our hour of success, the earnest and able advocate of that cause, when neglected and unpopular. We will not forget the generous and indomitable spirit which prompted him in the outset of his public life, to plead that cause, without fee or hope of reward, before a cold and unwilling audience, in the highest council of the State; which induced him to abandon a professional career for which he had made a most costly and diligent preparation, and in which, steadily pursued, he was sure to win distinction and wealth; which has enabled him to turn a deaf ear to the voice of political ambition, and to close his heart to the seductions of popular applause, so easily gained by one possessed of his powers of oratory in the discussion of questions of temporary interest; which has led him to decline positions of the

* JOHN D. PHILBRICK, for many years Principal of the Quincy Grammar School, Boston, and for the last year (1854,) Associate Principal of the State Normal School of Connecticut.

highest literary dignity in college and university,—that he might give himself up unreservedly to the improvement of common schools—the long forgotten heritage of the many.

His labors were arduous enough in themselves—being none other than “to awaken a slumbering people, to encounter prejudice, apathy, and sluggishness, to tempt avarice to loosen its grasp, to cheer the faint-hearted and sustain hope in the bosom of the desponding.” But even these labors were made still more arduous by the untoward hindrances needlessly thrown in his way by party spirit, and by a niggardly legislative economy, which compelled him every year, in order to keep his plans in operation and realize even a moderate degree of success, to expend his entire salary in the public service. Most heartily do we agree in the sentiment of a writer in the *New York Review*, on the labors of Mr. Barnard in Connecticut, from 1838 to 1842—“We are glad to see such men engage in such a cause. We honor the spirit which is willing to spend and be spent in the public service, not in the enjoyment of sinecures loaded with honors and emoluments, but taking upon itself the burden, and if unsupported, carrying it alone, through good report and through evil report, alike indifferent to the flattery or the censure of evil-minded men, and intent only on the accomplishment of its work of benevolence and humanity. To that spirit, is the world indebted for all of goodness or of greatness in it worth possessing. The exploits of the conqueror may fill a more ambitious page in history, the splendors of royalty may appear more brilliant and dazzling in the eyes of the multitude, and to the destroyer of thrones and kingdoms they may bow in terror of his power; but the energy and devotion of a single man, acting on the hearts and minds of the people, is greater than they all. They may flourish for a day, and the morrow will know them not, but his influence shall live, and through all the changes and vicissitudes of thrones, and kingdoms, and powers on earth, shall hold its onward, upward course of encouragement and hope in the great cause of human progress and advancement.”

The teachers of Connecticut and of the country can never forget his valuable services to them—to many of them individually—and to the measures and agencies which he has advocated, and to some extent projected for the advancement of their profession. In his first speech before the Legislature of Connecticut, (1838,) in introducing the “Act to provide for the better supervision of Common Schools,” he proclaimed the great truth “that it is idle to expect good schools until we have good teachers.” “With better teachers will come better compensation and more permanent employment. But the people

will be satisfied with such teachers as they have, until their attention is directed to the subject, and until we can demonstrate the necessity of employing better, and show how they can be made better by appropriate training in classes and seminaries, established for that specific purpose." The same views were urged in every communication which he had occasion to make to the Board and the Legislature. In his remarks made in the House of Representatives, in 1839, on a Report of the Committee on Education, recommending an appropriation of \$5,000 to be applied by the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, in promoting the qualifications of teachers, he anticipates his own modes of improving their qualifications and the final triumph of his educational efforts.

"The report of the Committee, brief as it is, embodies the substance of all I should have to say, if I should review in detail the condition of our common schools, with a view of proposing a series of measures for their improvement. The great want of these schools is that of better teachers. Good teachers will make better schools, and schools made better by the labors of good teachers, is the best argument which can be addressed to the community in favor of improved school-houses, a judicious selection of a uniform series of text-books in the schools of the same society, of vigilant and intelligent supervision, and liberal appropriations for school purposes. Give me good teachers, and in five years I will work not a change, but a revolution in the education of the children of this State. I will not only improve the results, but the machinery, the entire details of the system by which these results are produced. Every good teacher will himself become a pioneer, and a missionary in the cause of educational improvement. The necessity of giving such a teacher every facility of a well-located, well-ventilated, and well seated school-house, of giving the teacher a timely supply of the best text-books and apparatus, and of keeping him employed through the year, and from year to year, with just such pupils and studies as he can teach to the best advantage—these things will be seen and felt by parents, and by districts. And the public, as represented in the Legislature, will see to it that much of our defective legislation is supplied by that which will create and sustain a popular interest in the subject, lead to the appointment of faithful officers, assign to each class of offices, appropriate duties, subject all appropriations of school money to severe scrutiny, provide for the training and adequate compensation of good teachers, and the employment of such teachers in schools of different grades. But let us not deceive ourselves. Five thousand dollars will not make adequate provision for the training of teachers. As one of those who may be intrusted with its expenditure, I should not advise its appropriation at this time, to the establishment of a Normal School. This sum should be so expended as to reach, if practicable, every teacher in the state. The teachers should be induced to come together for a week, or a month, and attend a course of instruction on the best methods of school teaching and government. They should profit by the lectures and practical hints of experienced teachers. They should have access to, and be induced to purchase and read good books on the theory and practice of teaching. They should be induced to form associations for mutual improvement, the advancement of their common profession, and the general improvement of education, and the schools of the state. They are the natural guardians of this great interest—at least they are the co-operators with parents in this work of educating the rising generation, to take the place of that which is passing off the stage. They are the chosen priesthood of education—they must bear the ark on their shoulders. The appropriation thus applied, so as to improve the teachers now in the schools, and create in them a thirst for something higher and better than can be given in any temporary course of instruction, will lead to the establishment of an institution for the professional education and training of teachers, the great agency by which the cause of education is to be carried upward and onward in this state. Though the prospect is dark enough, I think I can see the dawning of a better day on the mountain tops, and the youngest members of this house, if they live to reach the age of the oldest, will see a change pass over the public mind, and over public action, not only in respect to the professional education of teachers, but the whole subject of common schools. Old, dilapidated, inconvenient school-houses will give place to new, attractive, and commodious structures. Young children will be placed universally under the care of accomplished female teachers; female teachers will be employed in every grade of schools as assistants, and in most of our country districts as sole principals: a school of 'a higher order' than the district school will receive the older boys and girls, not only of a district, but of a society,

and the common school will no longer be regarded as *common*, because it is cheap, inferior, and attended only by the poor, and those who are indifferent to the education of their children, but common as the light and the air, because its blessings are open to all, and enjoyed by all. The passage of this resolution will hasten on that day; but whether the resolution is passed or not, that day will assuredly come, and it will bring along a train of rich blessings which will be felt in the field and the workshop, and convert many a home into a circle of unfading smiles. For one, I mean to enjoy the satisfaction of the labor, let who will enter into the harvest."

In this brief speech, expressed in the language of a man in earnest, and who knows what he is driving at, is the substance of many speeches. The appropriation was carried in the House, where these remarks were made, but was lost in the Senate. What the legislature refused to do, the Secretary undertook to do at his own expense, in order "to show the practicability of making some provision for the better qualification of common school teachers, by giving them an opportunity to revise and extend their knowledge of the studies usually pursued in district schools, and of the best methods of school arrangements, instruction and government, under the recitations and lectures of experienced and well-known teachers and educators." Since that Teachers' Class or Institute was held in Hartford in the Autumn of 1839, hundreds of similar gatherings have been held in different states, and thousands and hundreds of thousands of teachers have had their zeal quickened, their professional knowledge increased, their aims elevated, and the schools which they have subsequently taught, made better.

But Mr. Barnard has rendered other important services to the cause of popular education, and his labors have been largely instrumental in promoting and improving institutions, systems and agencies, which are already wrought into the structure and life of society. In every part of our land his name is mentioned with honor and gratitude, whenever plans for the diffusion of useful knowledge and the improvement of school-laws, school-houses, schools, and education generally, are agitated in public or private. Believing then, that the influence of no single individual has been more extended or more beneficial, in the most critical period of our own school history, and in determining the educational policy of the country, and that his fame is the property of the state, we propose to accompany the portrait of our late Superintendent, which the teachers of Connecticut are having engraved for this number of the Journal, with a sketch of his labors in this state and in Rhode Island. We shall dwell at some length on his early connection with the schools of Connecticut, because many of our teachers now in the schools, are not aware of the thoroughness of his early labors, the nature and extent of the sacrifices he was called on to make in their behalf, and of the generous and indomitable spirit with which he persevered through good

report and through evil report, until his long baffled efforts by pen and voice, are now realized in improved school-houses, a gradation of schools, the better compensation, more permanent employment and united action of teachers, a property tax for all school purposes, a livelier parental interest, the larger attendance of children of the rich and educated, as well as of the poor, in the common school, and above all, in the permanent establishment of this Journal, a Teachers' Association, Teachers' Institutes, and a State Normal School.

Mr. Barnard entered into the service of the common schools of Connecticut with all his early sympathies enlisted in their behalf at an age when he was capable of performing the most work, both mental and physical, and with the best preparation he could have made, had he been destined or trained for the specific work he was called on to perform. He was a native of the state, and proud of her great names, and had already revived the Connecticut Historical Society,* for the purpose of collecting and preserving the memorials of her past history.

HENRY BARNARD was born on the 24th of January, 1811, in Hartford, where his family had lived from the first settlement of the colony, in the mansion where he still resides, and his strong local attachment to his old home, the city and the state, has led him to decline many lucrative and desirable situations abroad. His elementary instruction was in the common district school, to which he was always attached, and for which he has repeatedly expressed his gratitude, not because of the amount or quality of the instruction there received—for we have often heard him declare that it had taken half his life to get rid of or correct the bad mental habits he had acquired at the district school—but because it was the best school of American citizenship, the place where children of the rich and poor, of the capitalist and laborer, were brought into that practical knowledge of each other which our law of society ordains. His acquaintance with the defects of the common school, qualified him to speak authoritatively of their condition, and his subsequent training in Munson Academy, (Mass.,) and the Hopkins Grammar School in Hartford, led him early to the opinion, that all that was taught in institutions of that grade, could be as well, and even better taught in a Public High School, as part of our system of common education. He has lived long enough to see such a school established in Hartford, with a course of instruction more extensive and practical than in any acad-

* On the death of Hon. Thomas Day, who had held the office since 1838, Mr. Barnard was elected President of the Connecticut Historical Society.

emy in the state, and actually resorted to by the sons and daughters of the rich and poor.

His collegiate training, connected with his special attention while in college, to the exercises of one of the literary societies, not only prepared him for the high duties of public life, but qualified him to assign the proper place to the common school, with its various grades, in a system of public instruction, and saved him from those narrow and one-sided views, which the advocates of the common school, looking exclusively at that great interest, and especially when their minds have not been liberalized by a high literary culture, are too apt to take. Mr. Barnard has never been found on the side of those who would lower the standard of collegiate education, or reduce the number of highly cultivated minds in a state. On the other hand, he has done much to assist deserving young men in indigent circumstances, to obtain a collegiate training, and to bring teachers of common schools, and professors of academies and colleges to coöperate in some concerted plan of action, so as to make all our educational institutions, parts of one great system of public instruction.

Mr. Barnard entered Yale College in 1826, and graduated with honor in 1830. While he aimed to maintain his general scholarship up to the standard reached by less than one-sixth of his class, and in the early part of his residence there, won the Berklenian Premium for Latin and English composition—during his Junior and Senior years, he devoted himself diligently to a systematic course of reading in English literature, to the practice of English composition, and to written and oral discussion, for which the exercises of the class-room and the literary societies of Yale furnish an inviting arena. He has often expressed to the writer of this sketch, his conviction, that while he did not under-rate that instruction in science and literature, and that development and expansion of the faculties of acquisition and reflection, which he had gained from the regular college course, he owed more of his usefulness in public life to the free commingling of members of different classes, of varied tastes, talents and characters, to the excitement and incentive of the weekly debates, to the generous conflict of mind with mind, and to the preparation for the discussions and decisions of the literary societies with which he was connected. He was an active member, and at one time President of the Linonian Society, for one of whose exhibitions he wrote a drama, which that distinguished poet, James A. Hillhouse, who was present at its performance, pronounced worthy of being brought out on the stage. For the advantage of having access to the library at all hours, he acted as librarian for two years, and in keeping with his subse-

quent conduct, expended the compensation allowed for his services, in a donation of books to the library. His knowledge of books, and of the practical management of a library, thus acquired, has proved of great service to him, in organizing school and other public libraries in his educational labors.

Immediately on leaving college Mr. Barnard projected and entered upon a course of private study and reading, at once preparatory and supplementary to a thorough professional training for the practice of the law. While he gave two hours every day to Blackstone and Kent, and the other legal text-books, until he was enrolled as a student in the office of the Hon. Willis Hall, afterward Attorney General of the state of New York, and of William H. Hungerford, Esq., of Hartford, (when he reversed the rule,) he devoted the rest of the day to the diligent perusal of the works of Bacon, Gibbon, Warburton, Burke, Barrow, Taylor, and that class of authors, as well as the more commonly received classics of our language. Few professed scholars among us at the age of twenty-seven, were so thoroughly familiar with the ancient and modern English literature. Nor did he lose by want of use, his knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages, but following the advice of President Day to his graduating class, he read a little every day in Homer, or Virgil, or Cicero. At the suggestion of the same venerated instructor, he was induced to take charge of a school in Wellsboro', Pa., to teach for awhile, as a means of reviving and making permanent his knowledge of the ancient classics. On arriving at Wellsboro', he found that the school was more like a "District School" in Connecticut, than like a New England "Academy." Being desirous to make the most of his position, he at once addressed himself to the work of making a good school, and to a thorough study of the theory of teaching. He read and thought upon the subject, and gained that practical knowledge of the management of a school, which proved of eminent service to him in his subsequent career.

This brief experience in teaching he has ever highly valued, not only because it introduced him to the subject of education as a science, and to its practical duties as an art, but as a school of mental and moral discipline to himself, and as the most direct way to test the accuracy of attainments already made. "We are not sure of our knowledge of any subject, until we have succeeded in making ourselves vividly and thoroughly understood by others on that subject," is a familiar remark in his public addresses to teachers. His literary and professional studies were not again interrupted until he was admitted as Attorney and Counselor at Law in Connecticut, in

the winter of 1835. Before entering on the practice of his profession, his father furnished him with the means of spending a few years in Europe. In accordance with his plan of doing thoroughly and with preparation, whatever he undertook, he had fitted himself to profit by his opportunities of foreign travel, by a familiar acquaintance, not only with the history and institutions of our own country, but with the local peculiarities, the manners, men and scenery of its different sections. He had spent his college vacations and subsequent intervals of leisure, in visiting all the most interesting localities in New England and the western states, and was present for several months at Washington, in the stormy and eloquent debates of 1832-33; and before embarking for Europe, he extended his personal acquaintance by a tour through the Southern and Western states, with such letters of introduction as gave him admission into the most cultivated society, and enriched his mind with the conversation of such men as Tazewell, Marshall, Madison, Poinsett, Legare, Preston, Calhoun, Mac Duffie, Clay, Webster, and other statesmen and public characters whose names are historic and representative of the mental and moral greatness of our country. Few men have gone abroad, having enjoyed larger opportunities of observing American society and scenery in every state, and better prepared by study and natural taste, to profit by foreign travel. His original plan was to spend some time in Germany in the study of the civil law, but the failing health of his father induced him to shorten his period of absence from home, and devote himself to the general objects connected with residence and travel in the principal cities of the old world.

He interested himself not only in the beautiful scenery, the galleries of art, the libraries, the historic monuments, and similar objects of interest, but in everything connected with the social condition of the people—their homes, schools, and places and modes of daily occupation and recreation, as well as institutions of public charity. That he might the better accomplish his own plans, large portions of England, Scotland, and Switzerland, were traveled on foot. His letters of introduction secured to him the personal acquaintance of Wordsworth, Lockhart, De Quincey, Carlyle, and other distinguished literary characters.

Mr. Barnard returned from Europe with his mind enriched by valuable observation, and his horizon both of knowledge and duty, greatly enlarged. He was more than ever attached to the institutions of his own country, and more deeply impressed with the necessity on every citizen, of cultivating and practicing a large public spirit, and of basing all our hopes of permanent prosperity, on universal educa-

tion. "Here at least, no man can live for himself alone. Individual happiness is here bound up with the greatest good of the greatest number. Every man must at once make himself as good and as useful as he can, and help at the same time to make everybody about him, and all whom he can reach, better and happier." These were the sentiments expressed in the first public address he had occasion to make after his return, and in the spirit of these sentiments he has continued to live and act. For six months after his return he was confined with other members of his family, to attendance at the sick bed of his only remaining parent. For many months he watched a portion of every night and every day, and during this period he employed such leisure as he could command, in reading about the countries he had visited.

In 1837, he was nominated, without any knowledge on his part of the intention of his friends, and elected by a large majority of the votes cast, to represent his native town in the Legislature of the state, the first instance of a young man's being elected to that post from Hartford.

He served as a member of the House of Representatives with great acceptance for three successive years, and then retired from all active participation in political affairs, to devote himself to the promotion of measures of educational reform and improvement. From this determination he has never swerved, although he has been repeatedly consulted to allow his name to be used in primary meetings and nominating conventions, for offices of the highest political trust, at times when the party with whose opinions and measures he most sympathized, was in the ascendant, and he had every reasonable assurance of being successful in the canvass. During his connection with the Legislature, he took an active interest in securing appropriations for the education of the deaf and dumb, and the blind, for the completion of the geological survey of the state, and in the passage of acts for the incorporation of public libraries, for the improvement and reorganization of the county jails, for the support of the insane poor at the Connecticut Retreat, and for the amelioration of the condition of the town poor.

But the most signal service rendered by him to the state, was in originating and carrying through both Houses of the Legislature in 1838, with unprecedented unanimity, an "Act to provide for the better supervision of Common Schools," the commencement of a new era in our school history. In the session of 1837, he gave his vote and influence to secure the passage of a resolution calling on the school visitors to furnish a particular statement of the condition of

each school to the next General Assembly. In the interval he made personal inquiries on the subject, and addressed a circular to every member elected in 1838, inviting their attention to the condition of the schools. As soon as the session opened he conferred with the prominent members of every shade of political opinion, and secured their favorable reception to the bill for the act referred to. The bill was recommended by a joint select committee on education, to whom it had been referred, and advocated by Mr. Barnard in a speech, which was so favorably received by the House, that on motion of the Hon. Roger Minot Sherman, the rules were suspended and the bill passed to its third reading without one dissenting voice. It subsequently passed the Senate by a unanimous vote.

The following extract from Mr. Barnard's Speech, as reported at the time sets forth clearly the objects contemplated by this Act.

"This measure, if adopted and sustained by the Legislature and the people for ten years, must result in making some legislative provision for the better education, and special training of teachers for their delicate and difficult labors. Every man who received his early education in the district schools of Connecticut, must be conscious, and most of us must exhibit in our own mental habits, and in the transactions of ordinary business, the evidence of the defective instruction to which we were subjected in these schools. And no one can spend a half hour in the best common school in his neighborhood, without seeing, both in the arrangements, instruction, and discipline of the teacher, the want, not only of knowledge on his part, but particularly of a practical ability to make what he does know available. He has never studied and practiced his art, the almost creative art of teaching, under an experienced master, and probably has never seen, much less spent any considerable portion of time in visiting, any better schools than the one in which he was imperfectly taught—in which he said *his lessons*, as the business is significantly described in a phrase in common use.

The first step will be to get at the fact, and if it is as I suppose, that our teachers are not qualified, and that there is now no adequate provision made in our Academies and higher seminaries for the right qualification of teachers of district schools, then let the fact be made known to the Legislature and the people, by reports, by the press, and by popular addresses,—the only ways in which the Board can act, on either the Legislature or the schools;—and in time, sooner or later, we shall have the seminaries, and the teachers, unless the laws which have heretofore governed the progress of society, and of education in particular, shall cease to operate. It is idle to expect good schools until we have good teachers, and the people will rest satisfied with such teachers as they have, until their attention is directed to the subject, and until we can demonstrate the necessity of employing better, and show they can be made better, by proper training in classes or seminaries established for this specific purpose. With better teachers will come better compensation and more permanent employment. The people pay now quite enough for the article they get. It is dear at even the miserably low price at which so much of it can be purchased. Let us have light on the whole subject of teachers,—their qualifications, preparation, compensation and supervision, for on these points there is a strange degree of indifference, not to say ignorance, on the part both of individuals, and of the public generally."

MR. BARNARD'S LABORS IN CONNECTICUT.

FROM 1838 to 1842

The Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, as constituted by the "Act to provide for the better supervision of Common Schools, passed May session, 1839, consisted of the following persons: His Excellency, Gov. Ellsworth; Hon. Seth P. Beers; Wilbur Fisk, President of Wesleyan University; Henry Barnard 2d, of Hartford; John Hall, Esq., of Ellington; Hon. Andrew T. Judson, of Canterbury; Charles W. Rockwell, of Norwich; Rev. Leland Howard, of Meriden; Hawley Olmsted, of Wilton; William P. Burrall, of Canaan.

The Board held its first meeting in Hartford, on the 15th and 16th of June. The Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet was appointed Secretary, and in the event of his declining, (which he afterwards did,) Henry Barnard 2d was offered the appointment, and subsequently accepted it.*

* Mr. Barnard at first declined the appointment of Secretary of the Board, because he had qualified himself for the practice of law, at a great expenditure of time and money, and had then the offer of a very desirable partnership with one of the oldest practitioners in the State—an offer which was shortly afterwards repeated by his former instructor in law, Hon. Wyllis Hall, then Attorney General for the State of New York. He was also reluctant to take the office, even temporarily, because he had been active in the Legislature in obtaining the passage of the Act of 1839, creating the office. Mr. Barnard thus alludes to his connection with the Board, in a letter addressed to a friend, the editor of the Norwich Aurora, in 1850, who had defended him from an assault made on him in a public meeting, held for the consideration of some of his plans of educational improvement in the city of Norwich.

"It may justify at least your good opinion of me to know a little of my personal connection with the efforts which were put forth in this State, from 1838 to 1842, in favor of liberal and efficient measures of educational reform. So far back as I have any recollection, the cause of true education—of the complete education of every human being, without regard to the accidents of birth or fortune—seemed most worthy of the concentration of all my powers, and, if need be, of any sacrifice of time, money, and labor, which I might be called upon to make in its behalf. The wishes of friends and accidental circumstances seemed to destine me to the legal profession and public life,—and for this I gave a most costly and assiduous preparation. But when I found myself in a position to act, my early predilections led me to entertain measures of educational policy. And for so doing, it seems, I can only be supposed to have acted from a desire to create for myself an office,—to bring myself before the public, and to receive a salary. Now it is due to myself to say, that, in framing the bill of 1838, I had not the most distant thought of filling the only salaried office created by it. It is known to many men, whose names I could give, that I had special reference to the Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet, whom I then thought, and still think, the soundest practical educator in the whole country, and whose confidence, friendship, and co-operation, it is among the treasured memories of my life to have enjoyed from the first hour I entered this field of labor. After the Board was created, on my motion, Mr. Gallaudet was appointed Secretary; and on his declining, at first, mainly on the ground that the salary was not adequate to the labor and outlay of the office, I pledged myself to raise by my own and others' subscription as much more as the State had appropriated, and to continue the same for three years, even though the office should be abolished. On his continued refusal to accept, at his suggestion, and the earnest solicitation of every member of the

The plan of operations determined on by the Board, is set forth in the following :

ADDRESS TO THE PEOPLE OF CONNECTICUT

Fellow Citizens :—

The undersigned were constituted by the Legislature at its last session, the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, and the duties were pointed out which they would be required to perform. In entering upon the discharge of these duties, they feel deeply their responsibility, and must rely on the cordial support and co-operation of the public, to carry into effect the great object of their appointment. Without this, they can do nothing to any good purpose. With it, under the blessing of Providence, they look forward to the most cheering results.

It is made the duty of the Board, to "submit to the General Assembly an annual report, containing, together with an account of their own doings,—First, a statement, as far as may be practicable, of the condition of every Common School in the State, and of the means of popular education generally; Secondly, such plans for the improvement and better organization of the common schools, and all such matters relating to popular education, as they may deem expedient to communicate."

The board are, also, authorized, if they see fit to do it, to "require of the school visitors of the several school societies, semi-annual returns of the condition of each common school within their limits. And they shall prescribe the form of all such returns, and the time when the same shall be completed, and transmit blank copies of the same to the clerk of each school society: And said board may appoint their own secretary, who shall devote his whole time, if required, under the direction of the board, to ascertain the condition, increase the interest, and promote the usefulness of Common Schools."

You will see from this, that the duties imposed upon the board, are of no com-

Board, I was appointed, and consented to act for six months without compensation, until a plan of operations could be matured, and a person appointed in my place. At the end of six months, the Board refused to go into an election, and insisted on my receiving the compensation allowed by law, to meet the extra expenses which I had incurred in organizing the operations of the Board. At the end of the first, and again at the end of the second year, I resigned, and asked for a successor—but in both instances was overruled. At the end of the third year, Mr. Waldo was appointed on my nomination. This I did, because I thought he was eminently qualified for the place; and because his relations to parties in the State would, as I thought, rescue the action of the Board from all suspicions of a political character. He declined, and urged me by letter, which I have now before me, to continue in the work, 'and that every good man in the State will sustain you. If you fail, no man can succeed.' I failed—or, at least, the standard of reform which I had borne aloft was stricken down, and nobody came to the rescue. But I retired from the field 'full of hope and manly trust' that a brighter day would yet dawn upon the cause, and that other and abler hands would be found to bear aloft the spotless ensign of a free people. I have lived long enough to see nearly every measure which I advocated twelve years ago recognized as at once sound and practical in the school laws and school reports of more than half of the States of this Union, and many of them among the established agencies by which the people of this State are now aiming to secure and extend the blessings of common school education; and I now find myself again employed in the service of my native State, with impaired health and diminished resources, but not 'bating one jot of heart or hope.' And if I should be dismissed to-morrow from her service, I shall not love my State the less, for that love is twined with every fibre of my being, or cease to labor in such ways as I can, to improve the condition of her common schools. As for office, I have yet to learn the satisfaction of holding any office in Connecticut on the score of emolument or real distinction. The only real satisfaction of being in office, is the opportunity it gives of carrying out more effectually, than can otherwise be done, views of public policy or social improvement. I have no desire to hold any office in the gift of the people, or of the State, beyond the one I hold, and that I shall be obliged to resign soon from failing health; and I am ready to resign it on the first indication that my services are either not acceptable or not useful. As a native-born citizen of Connecticut—as one whose roots are in her soil—I am ambitious of being remembered among those of her sons whose names the State will not willingly let die, because of some service, however small, done to the cause of humanity in my day and generation; but I am more desirous to deserve, at the end of life, the nameless epitaph of one in whom mankind lost a friend, and no man got rid of an enemy."

mon magnitude. It is true, they are clothed with no official authority, to make the least alteration in the system of common schools now in existence, or to add to it, in its various modes of action, any thing, in the way of law or regulation, of their own devising. Wherever it is found expedient to attempt this, the people alone will do it, through the constitutional organ of their power,—the Legislature which they themselves create. The powers, if they may be so called, of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, are simply, to ascertain, for the information of the Legislature, at its annual sessions, and of the citizens generally, what has been done, and is now doing, in the common schools, and in the whole department of popular education throughout the State, and to suggest any improvements which, from their own inquiries and reflections, aided by the experience of the community around them, may appear to be safe and practicable.

For these important purposes, such a board as that which is now constituted, with an intelligent and efficient secretary, was indispensably necessary. Our sister states, both in our immediate neighborhood and in the remoter sections of the union, are waking up to the consideration of their vital interests in the still more general diffusion of useful knowledge, and of the principles of sound morality and patriotism, among the great mass of the people. One after another, they are constituting, for the accomplishment of this object, distinct bodies of men, and appointing the proper individual, as an official organ and agent, to devote to these mighty concerns his entire time and talents. Surely, then, Connecticut, whose very name calls up before the mind the whole subject of common school instruction, and popular intelligence, will, at least, be anxious to know where she stands in this onward march of intellect; whether she is fully keeping pace with it, and whether she is sustaining the elevated rank, in this respect, which she has for a long time past, felt herself authorized to claim, and which has not been denied her.

She ought to know, and that speedily, the actual condition of her common schools. It is due to her dignity and her welfare to know it. If her schools are in a sound and flourishing condition; if the system she has established is wisely adapted to this end; if, while all the world around her, (the States of our own country, and the very monarchies of Europe,) are claiming to make great and important improvements in the department of popular education, these improvements are not equal, or at any rate, superior, to her old and long used processes; then she ought to know it, that she may justify herself to the world and to her own citizens, for adhering to these processes, and that she may push them forward with still greater pertinacity and vigor. But she cannot know this, without a faithful inquiry into the state of the schools. No such inquiry has, as yet, been thoroughly and satisfactorily made. There has been no efficient instrumentality for making it. The investigations at various times attempted, have been very incomplete. And no organization other than such an one as will result in having an appropriate individual devoted to this inquiry, acting under the direction of the State, and, as is now our case, by the late act of the Legislature, under a board of education, will ever effect this important object.

But if, on the other hand, the result of such an inquiry should be, that, with all the acknowledged and numerous benefits resulting from it, our system of common schools is susceptible of some modifications and improvements,—that there are some evils in its practical operations to be remedied,—and that now is the propitious time to attend to the subject, no good citizen, we think, will regret that such an inquiry has been made. We shall, then, be sure of arriving at the knowledge of the facts in the case. This will lead to harmony of opinion, whatever may be the issue of the investigation. If a few have decried our schools too much, it will show them their error; and if some have regarded our system as a perfect one, it may lead them to see that every thing that is human has its defects, and that it is the part of true wisdom, as well in States as in individuals, to ascertain their defects, and apply the safe and judicious remedies. Facts are what we want, and the sooner we can procure them, the sooner we shall be able to carry forward, with efficiency and increased success, our system of common school instruction, whether it remains in its present form, or receives some partial modification.

Impressed with these truths, and believing that they will be fully appreciated by the people at large, the board of commissioners of common schools are anxious to take such prompt and efficient measures for the fulfilment of the trust reposed in

them, as will meet the expectations of the friends of popular education throughout the State. In carrying out these measures, they will have to rely, under Providence, very much on their Secretary. His personal agency,—calling into exercise all the suggestions which the Board may be able to impart, all the resources of his own talents and observation, and the counsels of the wise and experienced among his fellow-citizens,—is indispensable to success. It is proposed that he shall visit, as far as practicable, all parts of the State, in order to accomplish the great object which the Board have in view,—the ascertaining the actual condition of the schools, and of popular education, with its various and deeply interesting statistical details; an accurate inspection of the practical working of the system as now in operation; and the devising of such modifications of this system, if found to be needed, as the great mass of the community, by comparing their opinions and views, may deem expedient to be recommended for the future action of the Legislature. County conventions will also be held, at suitable times and places, to aid in carrying forward this great work; at which the Secretary, and some one, or more members of the Board will be present. Efforts should be made in all the towns to send delegates to these conventions. School committees and visitors should attend; teachers, the clergy of all denominations, individuals in public stations, and the friends of education generally.

Circulars from the secretary of the board, and notices in the public prints, will give timely information of the holding of the conventions. These circulars will contain a series of inquiries, with regard to facts and views on the subject of popular education; the answers to which, and the discussions elicited by them, will contribute greatly to the stock of materials from which, before the next session of the Legislature, the board expect to prepare the report which they are required to make to that body. By these conventions, it is hoped also, that a vigorous impulse will be given to the cause of common school instruction throughout the State; and that its friends, by this interchange of sentiments, and acquaintance with each other, will form new bonds of sympathy and channels of united effort in promoting its success. It will be good and pleasant for the citizens of one republic thus to come together for an object so dear to them all; to feel conscious of the equality of freemen; to reciprocate the most kindly feelings; to find that they have a common interest; to provide for the improvement in knowledge, in usefulness, and in piety, of the thousands of children and youth who are soon to take the places of their fathers; to forget the distinctions of party and of sect; and to invoke the blessing of the Almighty upon their deliberations and doings.

The board, in addition to these measures to aid them in the discharge of their duties, propose, as soon as arrangements can be made to that effect, to establish, under their direction, a semi-monthly common school periodical. With an able editor, and contributors, and published at a moderate charge, its great object will be to promote the elevated character, the increasing prosperity, and the extensive usefulness, of the common schools of Connecticut. It will be needed, in connection with the public prints, as an organ of communication between the board and their secretary, and the public. It will aim to give information of what is doing in other States, and other countries, with regard to popular education. It will hope to assist in forming, encouraging, and bringing forward good teachers. It will contain the laws of the State in reference to common schools. It will assist school committees, and visitors in the discharge of their duties. It will be one means of ascertaining the real deficiencies that may exist in the schools, and of suggesting the suitable remedies. It will endeavor to excite and keep alive a spirit of efficient and prudent action on the subject of popular education, and to introduce upon its pages, from time to time, such other kindred topics as will subserve the promotion of this important end.

Peculiarities of local convenience and interest, render such periodicals desirable in each State. They already exist in different States, where they have a wide circulation. The one in Ohio is published by the authority of the Legislature. Our own State will, it is hoped, sustain by a general and generous support, this important auxiliary to all the other efforts which may be made for the benefit of its common schools. The teachers, and the schools themselves, will reap their full share of its advantages.

In concluding this address, the undersigned deem it unnecessary to enlarge on the importance of popular education, and of elevating our common schools to the

highest degree of excellence of which they are susceptible. Were they to begin on this theme, they know not where they would end. Its scope is commensurate with all that we hold dear in time and in eternity. It must be, that the freemen of a State like this, understand and appreciate its importance. It must be, that, as soon as the opportunity is afforded them, they will show that they do, by sustaining and cheering those whom they themselves have appointed to be their instruments in conducting such a glorious work to its completion.

The Board, then, looking first to Almighty God, and inviting their fellow-citizens to do the same, for his guidance and blessing in the further prosecution of their labors, feel assured that the public will afford them all needed encouragement and aid. Let parents and teachers; school committees and visitors; the clergy and individuals in official stations; the conductors of the public journals, and the contributors to their columns; the friends of education generally; the children and youth with their improving minds and morals; the females with their gentle yet powerful influences; and all with their good wishes, and fervent supplications at the throne of grace, come up to the work. Then will we unitedly indulge the hope that wisdom from above will direct it,—an enlightened zeal carry it forward, a fostering Providence ensure its success; and patriotism and religion rejoice together in its consummation.

WILLIAM W. ELLSWORTH,
SETH P. BEERS,
WILBUR FISK,
HENRY BARNARD, 2ND,
JOHN HALL,

ANDREW T. JUDSON,
CHARLES W. ROCKWELL,
LELAND HOWARD,
HAWLEY OLMSTED,
WILLIAM P. BURRALL.

From this address, drawn up by Mr. Barnard, it will be seen, that the Board did not claim any authority to interfere in the organization or administration of the system, to alter or amend the law, to correct illegal practices, to compel the attendance of children, or enforce better modes of school government and instruction. The office, was to collect and disseminate information, to discover, devise, and recommend plans of improvement. Upon the people, acting through the Legislature, school societies and districts, school officers, teachers and parents, rested the responsibility of amending the law, correcting abuses, and carrying out desirable local improvements. The specific duty of the Secretary was to awaken, enlighten, and elevate public sentiment in relation to the whole subject.

At the May session, 1839, the Board submitted their first annual report to the Legislature, including a report from their Secretary, with minute statistical information respecting more than twelve hundred schools. From these documents it appeared that the Secretary of the Board attended a common school convention in each of the eight counties; addressed more than sixty public meetings in different parts of the State; inspected more than two hundred schools while in session; received official returns from school visitors respecting more than twelve hundred districts; had personal or written communication with school officers or teachers in more than two thirds of all the school societies, and superintended the publication of the Connecticut Common School Journal, more

than 60,000 copies of the twelve numbers of which were circulated for the most part gratuitously over the State.

The following are some of the facts in the condition of the schools, and of the public mind respecting them, as ascertained by the measures of the Board :

That out of the 67,000 children between the ages of four and sixteen returned, not more than 50,000 attended the common schools in the winter of 1838-9, or more than 54,000 of all ages, and that the average daily attendance did not exceed 42,000 ; that there were in the State, 12,000 children in private schools at an expense of more than \$200,000, which exceeded all that was expended on the education of the 54,000 ; and that 4,700 children of the proper school age were returned as in no school, public or private, and the whole number could not be less than 8000 in the State ;—

That previous to the act of 1855 requiring annual reports, there was but one town or school society which had made provision for a written report from school visitors, as to their doings, or the condition of the several schools ;—

That it was difficult to find any one who could give information of the common schools out of his own district ;—

That school meetings, both of school societies and school districts, were thinly attended ;—

That school officers were appointed at meetings, where, apart from the officers of the preceding year, there was not a quorum to do business ;—

That the length of the school varied with the compensation of the teacher, which was governed not so much by his qualifications, as by the amount of public money accruing to the district ;—

That there was not even a formal compliance with the law requiring teachers to be examined and approved, and schools to be visited twice during each season of schooling in regard to summer schools ;—

That certificates were returned to the Comptroller's office, that the schools had been kept in all respects according to law, by committees who had no personal or written knowledge on the subject, and when in fact there had been an utter disregard of its provisions, and on such certificates the public money was drawn ;—

That the public money was appropriated to other objects than those specified in the law ;—

That schools had been discontinued in the winter for the want of fuel ;—

That school-houses were very generally neglected, and it would have been difficult to point, in the country districts, to a model school-house, in reference to location, construction, ventilation, and the arrangements of seats and desks;—

That there was not a school in the State, where there was uniformity in the books used in the several district schools or in the same school;—

That the diversity and multiplicity of studies attempted to be taught to children of every age in one school, had led to an alarming neglect of the primary studies, and of the younger children;—

That there was hardly an instance of the gradation of schools, by which the evils of crowding children of different ages, of both sexes, in every variety of study and school book, under a single teacher, were avoided;—

That teachers, although their qualifications were in advance of the public appreciation and compensation of their services, were employed, who had no special training for their duties, and who looked upon the employment only as a temporary resource;—

That the late and irregular attendance of children in many schools was such as to amount to an almost perfect waste of its privileges;—

That the instruction actually given to such as did attend, and attend regularly, was not often of a practical character, or calculated to form habits of accurate observation and clear reflection, and inspire the love of knowledge; and to crown the whole, as at once the cause and effect of the low state of common schools;—

That there prevailed a profound apathy in the public mind generally, a disheartening impression that nothing could be done, or that nothing need be done, to improve them.

As many of these evils could be remedied by a more vigorous and enlightened public sentiment in the community, in relation to the whole subject, the pulpit, the press, the lecture-room, and all the other agencies by which the general mind could be addressed and informed, were appealed to by the Board. So far as these defects resulted directly from the want of power in school districts, or the specific enumeration of the duties of school officers, or strict accountability on the part of all intrusted with its administration, an attempt was made to remedy them in the "Act concerning Schools," which passed both branches of the General Assembly, almost unanimously.

This Act contained several important provisions, among which may be specified the powers given to school societies, to establish

schools of different grades, without reference to districts, and to distribute the school money among the districts according to the actual attendance of children at school for a period of six months in each; to school visitors to prescribe rules for the management, studies, books, and discipline of the school, and to appoint a sub-committee to visit schools, &c., to be paid by the society; to school districts to unite for the purpose of maintaining a gradation of schools, and to tax the property of the districts for all school purposes, to provide school books for poor children, and provide the schools with a library, and apparatus.

The action of the Board was thus introduced by Governor Ellsworth in his annual communication to the General Assembly in 1839.

The law which creates the Board defines the various and important subjects of inquiry, to all of which the Board have given their attention, chiefly through Henry Barnard, Esq. their Secretary. Mr. Barnard has assiduously devoted himself to the duties of his office, visiting different parts of the State, spreading information before parents and teachers, organizing Conventions, instituting inquiries into the condition of common schools, and the practicability of their improvement. The result of his labors are embodied in a report which will be presented by the Commissioners. It is a work of much observation, critical examination and reflection, well worthy of your attention. When the real state of our schools is made known, and the facts developed, carefully considered, no man will question the expediency of the measures adopted by the last Assembly. The Secretary, who receives three dollars a day and his expenses while in the service of the Board, is the only person connected with this business who is compensated for his labor, and that compensation cannot exceed twelve hundred dollars. Who that wishes the rising generation to be blessed with knowledge, and especially those indigent children who have no other advantages besides common schools, will look on this generous and Christian effort, with jealous feelings? We have in Connecticut long enjoyed a system of general education, the work of experience and time, which should not be altered in a spirit of experiment or rashness. Nor do I apprehend any thing of the kind from those who are most zealous in the cause of education. It is certain that our schools can be essentially improved, and that something should be attempted worthy of the subject.

In 1839 and 1840 the Board consisted of Gov. Ellsworth, Hon. Seth P. Beers, Henry Barnard, 2d, for Hartford County; Prof. Olmsted, for New Haven do.; Judge Judson, for Windham do.; Judge Church, for Litchfield do.; Hon. S. D. Hubbard, for Middlesex do.; L. P. Waldo, for Tolland do.; Rev. D. H. Short, for Fairfield do.; and Thomas S. Perkins, for New London do. Henry Barnard, 2d, Secretary.

No change was made in the constitution of the Board in 1841, except the appointment of F. A. Perkins, as a member of New London County, in place of Thomas S. Perkins, resigned. The same measures substantially were pursued from 1839 to '42, to awaken and enlighten the public mind by the voice and the press, as in the first year.

In 1841 the Secretary, at the request of the Board, prepared the

"draft of a revised School Law," which was submitted to the General Assembly, and referred to the "Joint Standing Committee of the two Houses on Education," by whom its provisions were discussed in daily sessions for several weeks. The draft was reported back by the Committee, with some alterations, in the form of a bill which passed both the House and Senate in "An Act concerning Common Schools," by an almost unanimous vote. The Act has not been materially changed except by the legislation of 1842. The draft, as originally prepared, contained a provision, requiring each society to raise by tax on the property of the society, an amount equal to one half of the dividend of the income of the school fund; another, providing for a county superintendent; another, making small annual appropriations for school libraries, books of reference and apparatus, the distribution of plans for school houses, and the holding of Teachers' Institutes.

At the May session of the General Assembly, in 1842, the provisions of the School Law relating to the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools were abolished, and the various plans of improvement devised by that Board were suddenly arrested. Governor Cleveland, in his message to the Legislature, thus speaks of the origin and action of the Board:

"An opinion was advanced some years since, calling in question, to some extent, the beneficial influence of the School Fund, as it had been applied; and the Legislature, by way of experiment, established a Board of Commissioners of Common Schools; and, under the belief that some essential improvements might be made, an officer has been employed, at considerable expense, to visit the various schools in the State with reference to their improvement. As a part of the same plan, provision was subsequently made by law for paying the visitors of the district schools, one dollar a day for their services. The reason for the imposition of this tax, which, when the number of districts and committee-men is considered, will appear to be a considerable sum, has never been apparent. From time immemorial, it has been deemed a part of the obligations which competent men owed to society, to attend to these duties; and no inconvenience had ever been experienced. Until the spirit of benevolence and good-will to men shall cease to burn in the hearts of our people, I anticipate no difficulty in following, in this respect, in the path of our fathers. Without questioning the motives of those by whom these experiments were suggested and adopted, I think it obvious, that the public expectations, in regard to their consequences, have not been realized; and that to continue them, will be only to entail upon the State a useless expense. In conformity with this opinion, and in obedience to what I believe to be the public sentiment, I recommend the repeal of these laws."

In conformity to the views and recommendation of Governor Cleveland, in his message, and in his personal interviews with members of the Committee, the Joint Standing Committee on Education introduced a bill by which all direct supervision of the

school interest on the part of the State—every thing which aimed to secure the more particular attention of local committees, (by reimbursing expenses incurred,) to the work of school improvement, and the entire time, strength, and talents of one person to collect and disseminate information, to discover, devise, and recommend plans of improvement, and to awaken, enlighten, and elevate public sentiment, in relation to the whole subject of popular education, was repealed. By striking out of the existing law all that related to Union Schools, which was intended to encourage the establishment of a Common School for a higher grade of studies than could be profitably pursued in most District Schools, the Committee aimed to prevent the "dangerous" innovation of "creating by law schools of a higher order."

The Committee, in their report, while they acknowledge that "the Secretary of the Board has prosecuted, with zeal and energy, the duties assigned him for four years past, and collected and diffused a fund of information throughout the school societies and districts," and that the want of "complete success" cannot be attributed to "a want of faithfulness and attention on his part," still proclaim that the hopes of the friends of the measure creating the Board, "that a more lively interest would be taken upon the subject of common school education," have not been realized, and that "the expenses attending the duties of the Secretary of the Board have been a source of serious complaint."

Both the Governor and the Committee see fit to hazard the declaration, that the plans and labors of the Board and its Secretary had failed to realize the anticipations of the people, and the friends who labored in the Legislature of 1838 to secure their appointment. As the message of the Governor, and report and bill of the Committee have become part of the documentary history of our schools, it is due to Mr. Barnard, in particular, with whom the praise or blame of the measures of the Board belongs, to examine these allegations.

1. AS TO THE EXPENSES.

The expenditures of the Board were annually set forth in their reports to the General Assembly, and by the Secretary in the Connecticut Common School Journal. These expenses were paid, as by law directed, out of the "civil list fund," and not out of the income of the school fund. In 1841, when the bill for a revised School Act, and particularly the sections relating to the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, were under discussion, the Comptroller was very properly called on to report the amount of

expenses incurred by the Board. In his report the Comptroller gave the date and amount of all orders drawn by him on the Treasurer, in favor of the Board, without distinguishing such as were drawn by special resolutions of the General Assembly, from those which were for compensation and expenses of the Secretary. The communication was referred to the Joint Standing Committee of the two Houses on Education, who had reported the bill for the School Act, to examine. This Committee applied to the Comptroller for the original bills allowed by the Board, and the resolutions on which his orders were drawn, and to the Secretary of the Board for information on the whole subject. The following is a copy of the letter addressed to the Secretary, with his reply.

HARTFORD, May 30th, 1841

SIR :—The accompanying report of the Comptroller of Public Accounts, stating the amount of sundry orders drawn by him on the Treasurer of this State, in favor of the Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools and of others, has been referred to the Committee on Education, to examine and make report.

The Committee request you to give them information on the whole subject, and in particular,

First, That you will separate and distinguish the expenses of the Board under the act of 1838 establishing the same, from those expenses which have been incurred under any special resolutions of the General Assembly or otherwise.

Second, Has any, and if any, how much compensation has been received by any member or members of the Board of Commissioners, and what services have the Board or its members rendered?

Third, What amount has been paid in each year to the Secretary of the Board in the nature of compensation for services or salary.

Fourth, What amount of expenses has been incurred by, and allowed to the Secretary in each year, and for what purposes?

Fifth, The nature and extent of the duties required of the Secretary by the Board of Commissioners.

Sixth, Have the accounts which accompany this letter been audited, if so, by whom were they audited?

Seventh, Have expenses been incurred for the benefit of common schools, beyond those required by the Board of Commissioners, and if so, by what authority, and by whom have said expenses been paid?

Respectfully yours,

ALFRED SMITH, *Chairman pro tem.*

TO HENRY BARNARD, 2D, ESQ., *Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools.*

HARTFORD, May 31, 1841

To the Chairman of the Committee on Education :

In reply to the inquiries of your note of this morning, I herewith submit the following statements under the several heads specified.

First, The expenses of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, under the act of 1838, creating the board, were, for the first year \$1,571 44, and for the second year, \$1,782 89. For the present year which will close on the 17th of June, they will not exceed \$1,400. The average annual expense for the three years will be less than \$1,589.

Second, No member of the board, as such, has received any thing, either as compensation or for expenses incurred by travel to attend the sessions of the Board, and county or other school meetings, although more than 150 days have been spent by the board individually, and besides the expenses of travel, several members have expended liberally, in promoting the objects of their appointment.

Third, The secretary was allowed, in the nature of compensation or salary, for

the first year, \$385, and for the second year, \$1,095, and if his account is allowed as it will be presented, for the third year, he will receive \$1,014, making his annual compensation for the three years, \$998. The Secretary was directed to devote his whole time to the duties of the office, and has been paid for the whole time since his first appointment in 1838, except during the session of the Legislature in 1839, of which he was a member, and the time spent out of the state on account of his health, or his own business, amounting in all to 97 days. He has been paid on the same principle that the members of the Legislature, the clerks in each of the state departments, and every *per diem* officer in the employment of the state or national government are paid.

Fourth. The expenses incurred by the Secretary, so far as the same have been or will be presented or allowed, are, for the first year, for traveling expenses, \$547 75; for postage on letters, school returns, &c., \$98 69; for printing circulars, blanks, &c., \$25; and for stationery, including paper for blanks, \$17, and for the second year, for travel, &c., \$516 41; for postage, \$52 46; for circulars and returns, \$29 78; for stationery, \$13 99; and for extra clerk hire, \$75 25. The whole amount of expenses for the present year, will not exceed \$400; as the travel has been less, and the form of returns less expensive, both in printing and postage. The average annual expense of this office, for three years, is less than \$591 44.

Fifth. The duties of the office as prescribed by the Board, were,

1st. To ascertain by personal inspection of the schools, and by written communications from school officers and others, the actual condition of the schools.

2d. To prepare an abstract of such information for the use of the Board and the Legislature, with plans and suggestions for the better organization and administration of the school system.

3d. To attend and address at least one meeting of such parents, teachers, and school officers as were disposed to come together on public notice, in each county, and as many local meetings as other duties would allow.

4th. To edit and superintend the publication of a Journal devoted exclusively to the promotion of common school education. And

5th. To increase in any way practicable, the interest and intelligence of the community in relation to the whole subject of popular education.

In the discharge of these duties during the past three years, I have addressed 125 public meetings in relation to common schools, have visited more than 400 schools while in session, situated in large and small, city and country, agricultural and manufacturing districts, have had personal interviews with one or more school officers, teachers, or parents, from every school society, have received written communications in reply to circulars, or the requirements of the board, or letters addressed to me, from all but 5 school societies, and amounting in all to over 3,000 distinct documents, many of which occupy two, three, and sometimes eight or ten closely written sheets; have replied to all written or personal applications for advice or information respecting the school law, plans for school-houses, or other school purposes, and conducted with such assistance as I could enlist, by payment out of my own compensation, the Connecticut Common School Journal.

Sixth. The accounts of the Secretary were audited, and the bills and vouchers examined, for the first year, by the Commissioner of the School Fund, and for the second, by the Hon. Judge Church, both of whom are members of the Board. The Commissioner of the School Fund, and L. P. Waldo, Esq., are appointed auditors for the present year.

Seventh. In addition to the expenses before stated and allowed, I have paid out for the benefit of common schools in this State, upwards of \$5,175. Of this sum, \$1,293 have been received back from subscribers to the Connecticut Common School Journal, and \$785 from the following gentlemen, whose unsolicited liberality I am happy in having this opportunity to acknowledge.

John T. Norton, of Farmington, \$200; Samuel D. Hubbard, of Middletown, \$200; Thomas W. Williams, of New London, \$100; Charles Phelps, of Stonington, \$10; Eli T. Hoyt, of Danbury, \$25; George Beach, of Hartford, \$25; Governor Ellsworth, of Hartford, \$25; Thomas S. Williams, of Hartford, \$50; Daniel Buck, of Hartford, \$25; Dudley Buck, of Hartford, \$25; and Daniel Wadsworth, of Hartford, \$100.

Several other gentlemen of Hartford have subscribed liberally for the Journal,

but the amounts are included in the sum first named. The remaining sum of \$3049 I have paid out of my own resources.

It may help to remove some misapprehension, and to assist the committee to a better knowledge of what I have aimed to accomplish, if they will allow me to close this communication with a brief reference to some of the leading objects of the above voluntary expenditure.

To obtain more complete information, and to enable me to compare the results of my own observation, not only with the returns of school visitors in each society, but with others who had visited several societies, I employed in 1839, four experienced teachers to visit portions of four counties, and to report the results of their observations. For this work I paid them \$129 93.

In addition to such public addresses as I was able to make, or to induce others to make gratuitously, I have paid \$153 for the services of gentlemen well qualified for the labor.

To obtain drawings and engravings of improved plans of school-house architecture and furniture, I have expended \$110 55; and to induce at least one district in each county to build such a school-house as I could point to as a model in the most important particulars, and to aid in the establishment of school libraries in connection with them, I have expended more than \$200.

To show that something might be done to improve the qualifications of school teachers, arrangements were made in Hartford in 1839-40, by which, in the autumn, a class of twenty-six young men, and in the spring, a class of sixteen young ladies, were enabled to revise and extend their studies under recitations and practical lectures of experienced teachers, and to witness other modes of school arrangement, discipline, and government, than those to which they had been accustomed. All of them were subsequently employed in the common schools. This arrangement cost me \$119 18.

To enable teachers to possess themselves of the best books, prepared for their use, I have incurred an expense of more than \$50, in causing such books as Abbott's Teacher, Palmer's Prize Essay, Dunn's Schoolmasters' Manual, Davis' Teacher Taught, and others to be placed in the bookstores, and to some extent distributed in the country. More than twenty volumes of such works, belonging to me, are now in the hands of teachers and others interested in the improvement of schools.

But the main item of expense has been the Connecticut Common School Journal. It was started, and has been continued without the slightest reference to the amount of its receipts, but simply as the vehicle of useful information to such as were disposed to subscribe for it, or even to receive it gratuitously.

For the original articles which have appeared in its columns from the pens of some of the best writers on education in the country, I have paid upwards of \$400.

The laws of the State respecting schools, and such explanations as seemed calculated to give vigor and uniformity to their local administration, and all the school documents which have been ordered to be printed by the Legislature since 1838, have been published, and more than 3000 copies, on an average, of each, have been distributed gratuitously. In this effort to disseminate a knowledge of the organization, administration, and actual working of our school system, I have incurred an expense of over \$600.

The most important school documents which have appeared in this country, or in Europe within the last ten years, have been republished in this Journal. Among them I might name the Reports of Prof. Stowe on Elementary Education in Europe, which was first printed by the Legislature of Ohio, and afterwards republished by the Legislature of Pennsylvania, Michigan, Massachusetts, and of other states; the article by the same author on normal schools—both documents making a volume of 126 pages; the Reports of Cousin, the present minister of public instruction in France, on the schools and school systems of Prussia and of Holland; each constituting a volume of 300 pages, and only one of which has been printed in this country; the Report of President Bache, so far as the same related to primary or common school instruction in every country in Europe, and especially the description of particular schools; accounts of the labors and methods of Oberlin, Pestalozzi, Fellenberg, Dinter, Lancaster, Wood, Wilderspin, Stowe, and others; the valuable reports and documents prepared by Mr. Mann, Secretary of the Mas-

achusetts Board of Education; of General Dix and Mr. Spencer, the superintendents of the common schools of New York, and of the superintendents of schools in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, and other states;—all these, and other documents have either been printed entire, or such portions of them as seemed applicable to our circumstances, either for warning, encouragement, or example.

But the Journal is before the committee. They will see by looking through the three volumes, that there are engravings of four improved plans of school-houses, and descriptions of six or seven others; that there are copious selections from the most approved authors on education, making known new and successful methods of school government and instruction; that there are articles exposing the evils of late and irregular attendance of children at school, the want of parental coöperation with the teachers, the evils resulting from the variety of ages, studies, books, and classes in the same school, and remedies for these evils; the best means of elevating the character, and promoting the usefulness of teachers; in fine, that from the outset, the object aimed at has been to disseminate a knowledge of what was doing for common education at home and abroad, and of all existing defects and desirable improvements in our own schools and school system. My only object in alluding to the Journal here was, to add, that to sustain it, and circulate it as widely as seemed desirable, more than four times as many copies as there were at any time subscribers, have been printed, and that its aggregate expense for the three years, will exceed all receipts from any source by more than \$1,800.

The committee will I trust, excuse the personal character of this communication. It was unavoidable, from the nature of their inquiries. And however painful it has been to me, to speak of my own labors, and to spread out an account of expenses voluntarily incurred in which the public can be supposed to feel but little interest, it seemed necessary, to rescue my motives for laboring in this field of usefulness from suspicion and distrust. I assumed the responsibilities of a new, difficult, and delicate office, with a settled purpose to expend every farthing I should receive, in promoting what I believe to be the true and enduring good of the common schools. I have continued in this office only at the repeated and urgent solicitations of the Board. I shall retire from it with the satisfaction that I have asked no one to do what I have not shewn a willingness to do myself, and with no other regret than that I have not had more time, more ability, and more means to devote to this cause, which holds every other good cause in its embrace.

With great respect, your obedient servant.

HENRY BARNARD, 2d.

Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools.

Before transmitting the above letter to the chairman, the Secretary invited two members of the committee, (John Cotton Smith, of Sharon, and Samuel Raymond, of New Canaan,) to examine the original bills and vouchers for the expenditures incurred by him. They did so, and reported to the committee that such expenses had been incurred for the objects specified. The committee agreed unanimously to the following report, which was accepted and ordered to be printed, with the letter of the Secretary, without a dissenting voice.

Report of the Joint Standing Committee on Education, respecting the expenses of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools.

The Joint Standing Committee on Education, to whom was referred the report of the Comptroller, stating the amount and date of sundry orders drawn by him in favor of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, have had the same under consideration, and beg leave to report, that they have procured from the Comptroller the items of account embraced in such orders, and do find:

1. There was drawn under special resolutions of the General Assembly, or otherwise, for which the Board are in no way responsible,	\$452 40
2. For the compensation of the Secretary, in 1838-9,	885 00
Expenses of do. duly audited,	686 44
For the compensation of the Secretary, in 1839-40,	1095 00
Expenses of do.	687 80
Drawn on account of compensation and expenses for 1840-41, thus far,	650 00

Under the first class of expenses is included \$35 for printing and distributing in 1838 the entire school law; \$87 40 for printing and distributing the act of 1839, with the old laws, to every district and society; \$330 granted by the legislature of 1840, for binding the school documents of 1839-40, together with such back numbers of the Journal as the Secretary of the Board placed at the disposal of the Legislature. The whole expense under the last resolution actually incurred by the Secretary, as appears from the original bills, was \$531 55. The items under the second class of expenses are specified in the accompanying letter from the Secretary of the Board. They all appear in the bills on file in the Comptroller's office, which were audited for the first year by the Commissioner of the School Fund; and for the second, by the Hon. Judge Church.

From the documents before the Committee, it appears that the average annual expense of the Board, including what remains to be paid to the Secretary for the current year, amounts to less than \$1,589.

Of this sum the average annual compensation of the Secretary is \$998.

The average annual expense is less than \$591 44.

The compensation of the Secretary has been allowed on the same principle that every other per diem officer is paid, and his expenses have been incurred in carrying out the measures of the Board and the duties of his office. His accounts have been duly audited and allowed.

It appears further, that the Secretary has, of his own accord, and to promote what he supposed to be the prosperity of the common schools, expended more than the whole amount of his compensation. The Committee conclude by referring to the accompanying letter of the Secretary of the Board for a more particular account of the labors and expenses of this department of the public service, and by expressing their opinion that the action of the Board of Commissioners has been well advised and useful, and the labors and sacrifices of the Secretary deserving of general approbation.

Per order,

ALFRED SMITH,
Chairman pro tem.

The Board, in their last report, in 1842, make the following statement as to the expenses and services of the Secretary:

"As some misunderstanding prevails on this subject, by which great injustice has been done to Mr. Barnard, as well as to the Board, it may be proper to state, that—

No member of the Board, as such, has received any thing, either as compensation for services rendered, or for expenses incurred in attending the regular meetings of the Board, or in promoting, by correspondence or otherwise, the objects of their appointment.

The Secretary of the Board has been paid for his services the sum authorized by law, and on the same principle, that members of the Legislature, and every per diem officer in the employ of the State or National Government is paid. He has not asked, or received, compensation for time spent out of the State on his own business, or for purposes of health or recreation. The whole amount allowed him, in the way of compensation, for nearly four years' devotion to the interest of the common schools of the State, is \$3,747, or \$937 a year; and this sum, and more, he has expended back again in promoting, what he supposed to be, the prosperity and usefulness of these schools.

The aggregate expense authorized or incurred by the Board, since its organization to this time, including both the compensation and expenses of the Secretary, is \$5,816 31, or \$1,473 a year; and for every dollar thus drawn from the treasury, an equal amount has been expended, by voluntary contribution, to promote the general object.

The expenses of the Board have been paid, not out of the School Fund, but out of the general funds of the treasury.

In concluding this Report, which will terminate the connection of some of the

undersigned, with the Board, we cannot refrain from expressing our conviction of the beneficial results of the measures of the Legislature, in the cause of general education. We can truly bear testimony to the indefatigable exertions and ability of the Secretary of the Board, which he has exhibited from the beginning, in promoting the objects of his appointment, and carrying forward his noble and well-directed efforts for the lasting benefit of our youth. His labors will long be felt in our schools, and be highly appreciated by all who entertain just and liberal views on education; and, whether appreciated or not, he will assuredly have the satisfaction of having generously, with little or no pecuniary compensation, contributed four of the prime years of his life to the advancement of a cause well worthy of the persevering efforts of the greatest and best of men."

Well might Mr. Barnard exclaim, as he did after inserting the above in the Connecticut Common School Journal,—“We have felt keenly the injustice which has been done our motives for abandoning a profession to which we had devoted three years of preparatory study, and all other pursuits quite as congenial to our taste, to assume an office, which, because it was new, was likely to be regarded with suspicion, and because it touched so many living interests, and habits of a century's growth, would be sure to array against it in the honest prejudices of many. The measure originated in the united action of all parties of the Legislature of 1838, and it has been the constant aim of the Board, composed as it has been of men of differing views in politics and religion, to keep it aloof from the disturbing influences of both. And it is a matter of much satisfaction, that we have made many warm personal friends, and experienced much personal kindness and hospitality from men of every shade of political and religious opinion. The hand of fellowship in this cause, and the pledge of co-operation in the work has been exchanged with thousands, without our knowing, or caring to know, their views on other matters.”

“For every dollar which has been drawn out of the treasury on account of the expenses or compensation of this office, we have expended a like amount, or more, out of our own funds, and the voluntary contributions which a few friends of common schools have placed at our disposal. Not one farthing of what we have received as compensation for our time and labor for two years, has been applied to our own personal benefit or expenses, but to advance the cause of common school education in this State. For this we ask or expect neither credit, thanks, or pecuniary return; but we do claim, that it should be regarded as an evidence of the sincerity of our professions, and willingness to do what we ask others to do—to spend and be spent, in promoting the more thorough and complete education of every child in the State. We look for our reward in the contemplation of the ever extending results of educational efforts, and in the consciousness that we have labored with fidelity on our small allotment in this great field of usefulness.”

II. AS TO THE MEASURES AND RESULTS.

The following review of the state of the common schools in 1842, and of the public mind and the school law respecting them in some important particulars, in connection with the measures which were adopted by the Legislature and the Board in their behalf since 1838, is taken from Mr. Barnard's Fourth Annual Report.

Prior to 1838, there was no official information respecting the condition of the common schools, for whose support the avails of more than two millions of permanent funds were appropriated. There was less accountability required of those intrusted with the administration of the system, and the expenditure of this large amount of money, than in any other department of the public service. There was no department or officer of the government charged with the special supervision of this great interest; and the statute book, for nearly a half century, bore few traces of any efficient legislation to secure the progress of the system, or promote the usefulness of the schools.

The facts collected under a resolution of the General Assembly of 1837, and, at the expense, and by the exertions of individuals, in the winter and spring of 1838, induced the Legislature of that year, with great unanimity, "to provide for the better supervision of the common schools," by bringing their condition, at all times, before parents, and local school officers in the register to be kept by the teacher, and, annually, before the school societies, in the reports of school visitors, and before the Legislature and the State, in the report of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools. While this Act leaves every member of the community in his unabridged rights, as regards the education of his own children, and, school societies and districts to maintain and manage the schools, to correct abuses, and carry out desirable reforms, according to their own judgment, it aims to secure the more particular attention of local committees to their supervision, and to enlist the counsel and experience of a Board, and the entire time, strength, and talents of one person, to collect and disseminate information, to discover, devise, and recommend plans of improvement, and to awaken, enlighten, and elevate public sentiment, in relation to the whole subject of popular education. Such was the general nature and scope of the legislation of 1838. The great leading object had in view, was, to collect and disseminate information as to existing defects and desirable improvements, in every practicable

way, as the only basis of sound legislative, local or individual action on the subject. To what extent, in what manner, and with what results this object has been prosecuted will be seen from the following extracts.

I. Prior to 1838, there was a great want of information as to the practical working of our school system, and the means of popular education generally in the state.

To supply this information, an inquiry was commenced, and has been continued for nearly four years, covering the following particulars.

[The inquiries were originally made in ten circulars and blanks for school returns, and were afterwards slightly modified and embodied in this Schedule.]

I.—NAME, TERRITORIAL CONDITION, POPULATION, AND PECUNIARY RESOURCES OF THE DISTRICT, OR LOCALITY OF THE SCHOOL.

1. Local, or neighborhood name?
2. Territorial extent? length? breadth?
3. Thickly or sparsely populated?
4. Population by last census; date of census?
5. Classification of population by age—(a) Number under 5 years of age? (b) between 5 and 15? (c) between 15 and 20?
6. Number of families residing in district?
7. Classification of families according to occupation—(a) Number engaged in agriculture; (b) do. in trade or shop-keeping; (c) do. in mechanic shops; (d) do. in factories or mills; (e) do. in navigation; (f) do. in banks; (g) do. in public offices; (h) clergymen; (i) lawyers; (j) physicians; (k) not actively engaged in any business; (l) day laborers?
8. Classification as to right of voting, whole number—(a) Number of voters as to municipal matters generally; (b) do. as to levying taxes; (c) do. as to establishing and regulating school?
9. Amount of valuation of taxable property—(a) Real estate? (b) personal? (c) mixed? (d) polls?
10. Amount of funds of all kinds (except school-houses, premises, and appendages,) belonging to school?
11. Amount of annual income—(a) State or town (other than district) fund? (b) do. property tax? (c) from district property tax? (d) from rate or tuition paid by parents? (e) from donations or subscriptions by individuals?
12. Number of schools in the district, of every grade, public and private?

I.—SCHOOL PREMISES.

A. GENERAL.

1. Place where school is kept—(a) In building designed and used only for school? (b) in building built or used for other purpose?
2. In whom is the title to the site and school-house vested?
3. By whom was the site purchased, and building erected—(a) By committee of district? (b) gift of individuals?
4. Cost of school property at this date?
5. Is the district in debt for all, or any part of the same?
6. Who is responsible for the care and preservation of the school property?
7. Are there any regulations respecting it?

B. SITE.

1. Extent of the site in feet? length? breadth?
2. Cost of the same, and present value?
3. Nature—high, dry, exposed, or sheltered?
4. Condition—(a) Well drained? (b) bounded? (c) inclosed?
5. Neighborhood, distance from noisy shop or thoroughfare?
6. Convenient to the population? if not, could a site more central or accessible be readily obtained?
7. By whom is the site of school-house determined?
8. What distance must the pupils, generally, travel before reaching the school?
9. What is the nature or general condition of the roads?
10. Distance of front of school-house from the front line of the grounds?
11. Distance of rear of school from the rear line of the grounds?
12. Distance of each side of house from corresponding boundary of lot?
13. Is the yard properly graded, fitted up, and divided for a play-ground for each sex?
14. Can you suggest any improvement of play-ground?
15. Are suitable privies and urinals provided, and kept always neat?

C. SCHOOL-HOUSE.

1. When was the school-house erected?
 2. At what cost?
 3. When was the house thoroughly repaired?
 4. Present condition as to repair?
 5. Material—stone, brick, or wood?
 6. Roof—slate, tin, or wood shingles?
 7. Interior—painted? papered?
 8. External proportions—length, breadth, height from ground?
 9. Is there a cellar under all, or any part of the building?
 10. Is the cellar at all times dry, and properly drained and ventilated?
 11. How high is the ground floor above the surface of cellar or ground beneath?
 12. Number of floors, or stories, and height of each story?
 13. Plan of each floor, on a separate paper, giving partitions, doors, and windows.
 14. Is there one or more ante-rooms provided with hooks, or shelves, for outer garments, umbrellas, &c.?
 15. Is there a scraper, and mat, and old broom at each outer door?
 16. Is there (a) sink, basin, and towel; (b) water-pail, or pump, cup, and other conveniences?
 17. Do boys and girls enter the building by the same door?
 18. If there is two or more floors, are the stair-cases strongly built and safe? Do the doors open outwards?
 19. Is each room well lighted?
 20. Height of lower sash of the window from floor?
 21. Are the sashes hung with weights?
 22. Are the windows furnished with outside blinds or shutters, and with inside blinds and curtains?
 23. How is the building warmed, by fireplace or stove for wood or coal? by heated air from furnace in the cellar?
 24. What means are provided for ventilation, *i. e.*, for the escape of the air which has become vitiated by respiration and other causes, and for the introduction and diffusion of a constant and abundant supply of pure air in the right condition as to temperature and moisture?
 25. Are the means of ventilation sufficient to secure the object, independent of doors and windows?
 26. Are the flues for the escape of vitiated air, made tight or smooth (except the openings into the room) on the inside, and carried up in the inner wall, in as direct ascent as practicable, and above the highest point of the roof?
 27. Are the openings for the escape of the vitiated air provided with valves and registers to regulate the quantity of air to pass through them?
 28. Is there a capacious vessel, well provided with fresh water, on any furnace or stove?
 29. Is there a thermometer in every room, and is the temperature in winter allowed to attain beyond 68 degrees Fahrenheit, at a level of four feet from the floor?
 30. What are the arrangements for seating the pupils? a separate seat for each pupil? or for two? or a large number?
 31. In the desks how much top surface is allowed to each pupil?
 32. Are the seats in all cases with backs? and of varying height, so that the youngest and eldest scholar can be comfortably seated in them?
 33. Is the arrangement of the seats and desks such as to allow of an aisle, or free passage of at least two feet around the outside of the room, and between each range of seats for two scholars, and to bring each pupil under the supervision of the teacher?
 34. What accommodations are provided for the teacher?
- N. B. If there is more than one school-room, most of the above inquiries must be answered in reference to each room.*

D. APPARATUS AND LIBRARY.

1. Is there a clock? a hand bell? compass? movable blackboard? terrestrial globe? real measures of all kinds, linear, superficial, solid and liquid? a collection of real objects?
2. What extent of blackboard, or black surface?
3. Is there a map of the city or town? county? state? United States? American continent? the world?
4. Is there a set of outline maps, and plates to facilitate map drawing?
5. Is there a numeral frame? a set of geometrical solids? blocks to illustrate cube root?

6. Are there charts illustrating the elements of the voice? the principles of elocution? analysis of sentences? the chronology of the world, and different nations? the geology of the state? the distribution of plants, and animals over the world? animal and vegetable physiology, &c.?

7. Is there a magic-lantern with diagrams, or slides to illustrate natural history? botany? astronomy? great events, and great names in history? costumes and manners of different nations, &c.?

8. Is there a collection of apparatus to illustrate the laws of matter? the laws of motion? mechanics? hydrostatics? hydraulics? pneumatics? electricity? optics? magnetism?

9. Is there a library of books of reference, such as a comprehensive dictionary of the English language; a Greek lexicon, and Latin do.; an encyclopedia; a gazetteer, &c.?

10. Is there a library of books for circulation? and if so, on what terms, and in what manner are the books drawn?

III.—THE SCHOOL.

A. GENERAL.

1. What is the grade of the school? primary? secondary? superior?

2. On what principles is the grade of the school determined? by the sex? by the age or proficiency of the pupils?

3. By what authority or regulations are pupils admitted?

4. By whom is the teacher examined and employed, and to whom responsible?

5. In what manner is the teacher examined? by oral or written questions and answers? in public or private? alone, or with other candidates?

6. What evidence is required of good moral character? of aptness to teach? of ability to govern?

7. In what manner is the teacher inducted into his office?

N. B. The remaining inquiries are to be addressed directly to the teacher.

B. TEACHER.

1. Teacher's name?

2. Age and place of birth?

3. Have you attended a normal school? which, and how long?

4. Have you attended a college? which, and how long?

5. Have you attended an academy, or any other school of a higher grade than that in which you are now teaching? and how long?

6. How many sessions of a teacher's institute have you attended?

7. What books on the theory and practice of education have you read?

8. What books or documents on schools or education do you own?

9. What educational periodicals do you take?

10. Do you belong to any teacher's or educational association, and how many of its meetings have you attended during the last year?

11. Do you keep a journal of your reading on the subject of education, or of your observations in schools, or of your own plans and experiments, and of the improvements your experience suggests?

12. How long have you been employed in teaching, and in what grade of schools?

13. For how long a time are you engaged in this school?

14. Do you propose to make teaching your business for life?

15. How many hours daily are you occupied in the school?

16. Is your time wholly devoted to the business of the school? or is it partially employed in some other occupation? If so, what is the nature of it?

17. What is your compensation per month?

C. ATTENDANCE.

1. Do you keep a register of admission and attendance?

2. Number of scholars of all ages registered during the term? boys? girls?

3. How many, boys and girls respectively, between the ages of three and four? between four and five? five and six? six and seven? seven and eight? eight and nine? nine and ten? ten and eleven? eleven and twelve? twelve and thirteen? thirteen and fourteen? fourteen and fifteen? fifteen and sixteen? over sixteen?

4. At what age do pupils commonly enter, and at what age do they commonly leave school?

5. Do you have particular periods of the year at which pupils are admitted?

6. Is the admission of pupils strictly limited to those particular periods? or are they admitted at any period?

7. What proportion of your pupils attend regularly throughout the year or term, except in sickness?

8. How many attend *three-fourths* of the term? *one-half*? less than *one-half*? less than *one-fourth*?
9. How do you ascertain the causes of absence? By receiving a written excuse? by inquiring of the parents of the pupils? if by the latter, who makes the inquiry?
10. What measures do you adopt to secure regular attendance? by vacating their seats after a certain number of absences without excuse? by informing parents by weekly or monthly reports? by regulating the standing of pupils in part by their attendance?
11. Do you enforce punctuality, as well as regularity of attendance? and how?
12. How many hours in the day is your school in session? and how many intervals for recreation?
13. How many half days in the week do you keep school? do you have half holidays on Saturday and Wednesday?
14. When and for how long a time are your vacations and holidays?

D. CLASSIFICATION.

1. Are the pupils classified according to age?
2. Is there a distinct classification of the pupils, according to their proficiency in each branch of study? i. e., are they classified according to their proficiency in spelling? in reading? in arithmetic? or does their proficiency in one branch, say that of reading, regulate the classification in all the branches?
3. Into how many classes, in each branch respectively, are your pupils arranged? and how many pupils in each class?
4. Do you have a time-table, with an exercise for a specified portion of each session?
5. How many hours, or half-hours, are devoted to each subject, daily? weekly?
6. Do you keep class-registers, in which every absence, recitation, and the standing of each member is noted?

E. COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

1. PHYSICAL DEPARTMENT.

1. Have you reflected on the importance of pure air, correct personal habits, cleanliness, and exercise, in the school training of your pupils?
2. Have you devised a series of games or movements in which your pupils can, at proper times, engage, and which call for the exercise of strength and activity in all the different muscles?
3. Is the play-ground furnished with the circular swing? vaulting frame? climbing pole, or other simpler forms of gymnastic machinery?
4. Is any portion of the play-ground covered, to protect it from rain and inclement weather?
5. Do your pupils meet in the play-ground before entering the school, and how often do they resort to it during the school session?
6. Are they superintended during their sports and exercises?
7. How do you secure the requisite purity and temperature of the atmosphere in the school and class-rooms, at all times?
8. Do you attend to the postures of your pupils at their desks, and recitations?
9. Do you make recitation, reading aloud, and singing, the means of physical training?
10. Do you apply the principles of physiology as developed in text-books, or in your oral instructions to the practical duties of the school-room, and of daily experience?

2. MORAL AND RELIGIOUS DEPARTMENT.

1. Is the school daily assembled and dismissed with religious exercises? with prayer? reading of the scriptures?
2. Is the Bible or selections read as a religious exercise every day in classes? or by a portion of the school? or by the teacher?
3. Are the pupils required to commit to memory psalms, passages of scriptures, &c.?
4. Do you give a systematic course of lessons from scripture?
5. Do all children receive religious instruction daily? or is it restricted to particular days, and to the older and more advanced pupils?
6. In case any parent objects to the course pursued in conducting religious exercises, or in imparting religious instruction, what course do you pursue? Are the children of such parents allowed to be absent at the time? or excused from taking part in such exercise or instruction?
7. Has any attempt been made by the clergy of different denominations to give religious instruction on certain days in the week, to the pupils of their several persuasions? and if so, with what success?

8. Apart from direct religious instruction and influence, what do you do to form moral habits, the habit of always acting conscientiously? of always telling the *truth*—the whole truth, and nothing but the truth? of punctuality and regularity? of diligence? of perseverance? of forethought? of kindness? of courtesy? of mercy to inferior animals? of forgiveness? of charitableness? of justice? of respect to property? of respect for superiors? of submission to the authority of law? of truth? of reverence for God and obedience to his laws?

9. Do you administer the government of your school with special reference to the moral culture of your pupils? in holding out motives to study and good behavior? in the punishments inflicted, &c.?

3. INTELLECTUAL DEPARTMENT.

1. Have you formed, for your own guidance, any scheme of the work to be done by you in developing, training, and storing the minds of your pupils? of the order in which the several powers or faculties of the mind should be developed, so that its growth shall be symmetrical and vigorous?

2. By what studies, and in what manner, do you cultivate the power and habit of accurate observation? memory? comparison? calculation? reflection? reasoning? imagination? expression?

4. AESTHETICAL DEPARTMENT.

1. Do you embrace in your ideas of primary education the development of the sentiment of the beautiful, and a love of order, harmony, and suitableness, in nature, art, literature, and life?

2. Do you make occasional excursions to interesting natural objects in your neighborhood, improve the principal phenomena of nature as they occur, employ music, drawing, and recitation as elements in this branch of education?

3. Do you have regard to this department in cultivating: order, cleanliness, and grace? in the personal habits of your pupils?

5. INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

1. Are any industrial branches taught, such as sewing, knitting, dress-making, &c. ? at what hours? and by whom?

2. Do you communicate a practical knowledge of the elementary principles of domestic and rural economy, and of technology?

STUDIES AND TEXT-BOOKS.

1. Enumerate the branches taught, and the number of pupils attending to each branch?

2. Enumerate the books used in teaching each branch?

3. Mention what books are used by each class?

4. By what authority are the books introduced into the school?

5. Do you experience any difficulty in inducing parents to provide the necessary books?

6. How many pupils are unprovided with all the necessary books and stationery?

7. Can all the books required be obtained without difficulty in the neighborhood?

8. Is there any plan adopted for supplying poor children with books, slates, &c., gratuitously or at reduced prices?

9. Are the school-books used considered by you in every respect satisfactory?

10. Have you any improvement to suggest in the books, or mode of supplying the school?

11. Are writing materials provided by the children? by the teacher? by the local school committee? or how?

METHODS.

1. To what extent, and in what branches, do you practice individual teaching?

2. To what extent do you practice the collective and simultaneous method, or address your teaching to a class or the school?

3. Are your collective lessons devoted to subjects on which improvement depends on the amount of individual practice, as reading and spelling, or to subjects connected with manners, morals, and religion?

4. Do you aim to characterize your collective lessons by simplicity, both of manner and illustration, and by animation, both of voice and manner?

5. Do you rest satisfied if you obtain an answer to a question from one, or do you repeat and remodel the question till the matter is understood and answered by all?

6. Do you employ your pupils as monitors of order? attendance, &c.?

7. To what extent do you employ your pupils as monitors in teaching?

8. Do you train every monitor in every lesson he is to teach?

9. Do your monitors receive any remuneration or distinction?

0. What branches are taught orally?
11. Are the pupils exercised in catechising each other?
12. Are the pupils exercised in giving written answers to written questions?
13. Do you occasionally require your pupils to write from memory an abstract of the lesson?
14. Do you call on your scholars to recite individually in the order in which they are arranged in the class?
15. Do you put out your questions to the whole class or school, and then point to the individual to answer?
16. Do you require every error to be corrected by the pupil making it, after it has been corrected by another pupil, or by yourself?
17. Do you aim at giving your pupils a thorough acquaintance with a few subjects, or a superficial acquaintance with many?
18. Do you feel at the close of every lesson that your pupils really understand what they have been attending to, and that the subject has become a means of intellectual development?
19. Are lessons in the various branches prescribed for preparation at home?
20. Do you have recourse occasionally to singing, or gymnastic exercises, to relieve the mind, and sustain the attention of your pupils during the progress of a lesson?
21. For how many consecutive minutes do you keep a class at recitation or lesson?
22. To what extent do you practice the system of interrogation, i. e., a plan of carefully devised questions, by which the limits of the pupil's knowledge is discovered, and he, at the same time, is led to infer some new truth?
23. Do you require frequent and full explanation from your pupils of the meaning and etymologies of words, used in their spelling, reading, and other lessons?
24. Do you avoid indefinite questions, and such as, by admitting of only "es," or "no" for an answer, encourage guessing?
25. Do you employ the elliptic, or suggestive system, in which the pupil is expected to fill up in a statement an important omission, or to infer the fact or truth of a proposition which logically follows from so much as is stated?
26. However important you may deem one or more of these or other methods, do you aim to vary the same and to adapt your methods to the study, the difficulty, the class, or the individual in hand?
27. Do you aim to bring your own mind and heart into immediate and creative contact with the mind and heart of each pupil?
28. Give a statement of any peculiarity of method pursued by you?

SPELLING.

1. Do you classify your school in reference to spelling, as distinct from reading?
2. Do you confine the spelling exercise to a text-book in spelling?
3. Do you require a definition or explanation of every word put out in the spelling exercise?
4. Do you sometimes test correctness in spelling, by dictating sentences containing one or more words of the spelling lesson, to be written on the blackboard or slate?
5. Do you put out the words to be spelled in the order in which they stand in the spelling-book?
6. Do you call on the pupils to spell in the order in which they stand in the class?
7. Do you put out the word to the whole class, and then designate the pupil who shall spell the same?
8. Do you practice your pupils in both oral and written spelling of the more difficult words?
9. Do you require the pupil to write on the blackboard the word he has misspelled orally?
10. Do you practice the method of dictating a number of words to be written by the class as a general exercise?
11. Do you require that the pupils should pass their slates or papers containing their spelling lesson, to be corrected by each other?
12. Do you require each pupil to rewrite correctly, and spell orally, the words which have been misspelled in the writing exercise?
13. Do you require the pupil to pronounce the word before he attempts to spell the same?
14. Do you require the pupil to pronounce each syllable as he spells it, together with the syllable already pronounced?
15. Do you require your elder pupils to copy pieces of poetry and exercise in grammar, with a view to improvement in spelling?
16. Do you require frequent exercise in original composition, partly to test and improve their habits of spelling, as well as of punctuation and capitalization?

READING.

1. Do you define and limit the portion to be read by a class?
2. Is the portion assigned of such moderate length as to allow of its being read three or four times at each lesson?
3. Do you read all or any portion of the lesson at the time it is given out, by the way of example?
4. Do you give illustration or explanation of obscure illusions, difficult words, and point to sources of information as to such and similar difficulty?
5. Do you require every member of the class to be attentive while one is reading?
6. Do you call on the class to read in the order in which they are seated?
7. Do you commence each lesson at the same place in the class?
8. Do you exact particular attention to the position of the reader?
9. Do you require that he throw his shoulders back, and hold the book at the right distance, and elevation?
10. Do you try to break up monotonous tones by requiring the pupil to write a sentence on the blackboard, and then to read the same?
11. Do you allow, as an occasional exercise, a class, or each member of a class, to select a piece for reading?
12. Do you point out on the map, or require the pupil to point out all places occurring in the lesson read?
13. Do you encourage mutual questioning on the part of the class, as to meaning of words?
14. Do you encourage a free detection of errors?
15. Do you require at the beginning, or close of a lesson, an explanation of the general character, style, and subject of the lesson?
16. Do you teach the definitions, and etymologies, and spelling of words in the reading lessons?
17. Do you occasionally require the class to read in concert?
18. Do you occasionally require the class to write a composition on the subject of the lesson?
19. Do you require every error in reading to be corrected by the pupil making it?

COMPOSITION.

1. Do you classify your pupils in reference to writing composition?
2. Do you accustom your youngest pupils to write or print words and short sentences on the slate, from your dictation?
3. Do you ask them to print or write something about what they have seen in coming to school, or read in the reading lesson?
4. As a preliminary exercise in composition, do you engage them in familiar *talk* about something they have seen in their walk, and has happened in and about the school? and when they have got ideas, and can clothe them orally in words, do you allow them as a privilege to write or print the same on the slate or paper?
5. Do you give out a number of words, and then ask your pupils to frame sentences in which those words are used?
6. Do you require your older pupils to keep a journal, or give an account of the occurrences of the day, as an exercise in composition?
7. Do you instruct your pupils as to the most approved form of dating, commencing, and closing a letter, and then of folding and addressing the same for the post-office?
8. Do you require your pupils to write a letter in answer to some supposed inquiries, or about some matter of business?
9. Do you request your older pupils to write out what they can recollect of a sermon or lecture they have heard, or of a book they have been reading?
10. At what age do your pupils usually commence writing easy sentences or compositions?

GRAMMAR.

1. Do you make your pupils understand that the rules of grammar are only the recognized usages of language?
2. Do you give elementary instruction as to parts of speech and rules of construction, in connection with the reading lessons?
3. Do you accustom your pupils to construct sentences of their own, using different parts of speech, on the blackboard?
4. Have you formed the habit of correct speaking, so as to train, by your own example, your pupils to be good practical grammarians?
5. At what age do your pupils generally commence this study?

ARITHMETIC.

1. Are your pupils classified in arithmetic?
2. Do you have a specified time assigned for attention by classes, or the whole school, to this study?
3. Do you use a *numeral frame*, and commence with and constantly refer to *sensible objects* in giving elementary ideas of number?
4. Do you question at every step in an arithmetical operation?
5. Do you explain easily and constantly all terms and marks?
6. Do you accustom your pupils to connect the abstract principle of the book with the objects about them?
7. Do you make constant use of the blackboard?
8. Do you go through a regular system of mental arithmetic with each class or pupil?
9. Do you allow a pupil or class to proceed to a second example, unless you are quite sure the first is thoroughly understood?
10. Do you always give one or more additional examples under each rule than are to be found in the text-book?
11. At what age do your pupils generally commence arithmetic?

PENMANSHIP.

1. How many pupils attend to penmanship?
2. Does your whole school attend to writing at the same time?
3. How often do they attend to writing, in morning and afternoon, and how long at each exercise?
4. Have you any physical exercises to give strength and flexibility to the hand and wrist?
5. Do you require the books to be kept clean, free from blots, and without the corners being turned down?
6. Have you a system of teaching penmanship?
7. Do you practice setting the copies in each book?
8. Do you occasionally write in chalk on the blackboard a copy, and require the whole school to imitate your mode of doing the same?
9. How are the pupils supplied with copy books? with ink? with pens?
10. Do you instruct your pupils in the art of making a pen?
11. Do you use metal or quill pens?
12. Do you show your pupils how to clean, and repair metal pens with a file?
13. Do you require your pupils to remove every ink-spot made by them, accidentally or otherwise, on the desk or floor?
14. Do you allow the ink to remain in the ink pots, or the ink pots in the desk, except when the class or school is engaged in writing?
15. Do you occasionally encourage your pupils to exchange specimens of their penmanship with pupils of some neighboring school or schools?
16. At what age do your pupils commence writing?

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Have you a compass, and do you make your pupils acquainted with the four cardinal points of the heavens, and have you the same marked on the floor or ceiling of your school-room?
2. Do you learn them how to find the north star at night, and to locate the north wherever they may be by day?
3. Have you a terrestrial globe divided into two equal parts, and connected by a hinge, to give a correct idea of the two hemispheres, or map of the world?
4. Have you a large globe painted black, on which the pupils may give an outline in chalk, of latitude, longitude, zones, &c.?
5. In the absence of any globe, do you construct a globe, or make use of some common object like an apple, for this purpose?
6. Do you aim to give your young pupils clear and practical ideas of distance and direction, and the elementary ideas of geography, by constant and familiar reference to the well known objects and physical features of their own neighborhood?
7. Have you a map of the district, town, county, or state in which the school is located?
8. Do you require your pupils to make a map of the school-room, or play-ground, and from that explain the principles on which maps are constructed, and what they are made to represent?
9. Do you commence map-drawing by accustoming your pupils to lay off the lines of latitude and longitude on the blackboard and slate?
10. Do you find any advantages in placing the map on the north wall of the room, or having the class recite facing the north?

11. Do you explain the different scales on which maps are constructed?
12. Do you occasionally require your pupils to designate a particular place both on the globe and on the map, and also to point with the finger in the direction of the same?
13. Do you connect the teaching of geography with the reading lessons, and especially with the study of history?
14. Do you occasionally test their knowledge of geography by questioning them as to places and productions of different climates mentioned in advertisements, and the shipping intelligence in the newspapers?
15. Do you occasionally take a book of travels, or a voyage, and require your pupils to trace the route of the traveler, on a map of their own construction?
16. Do you, especially with the older pupils, teach geography by topics—rivers, mountains, lakes?
17. Do you accustom your older pupils to construct their own geographical tables, in which the different physical features of a country, continent, or the earth, as mountains, rivers, &c., are classified by their distinguishing element, such as length, height, &c.?
8. At what age do your pupils enter upon this study?

HISTORY.

1. At what age do your pupils commence the study of history?
2. Do you, at any period of his education, endeavor to give each pupil a clear and practical idea of the measurement of time, *i. e.*, of the comparative length of a minute, an hour, a day, a week, a month, and a year?
3. Do you aim in any way to make him conceive the want of his own experience during a day, a week, or year, as constituting his own chronology and history for that period of time, and so apply the idea to the chronology and history of a people, or state?
4. Do you modify the exercise of map-drawing, by requiring your pupils to fill up an outline map of the world, with the nations as they were at a particular epoch? and so of each country, as different exercises?
5. Do you occasionally require your pupils to denote on an outline map of the world, the birth-place (date, &c.) of celebrated persons who have led armies, founded colonies, or changed the moral aspects of the age in which they lived?
6. Do you always require your pupils to study history with constant reference to geography and the map?
7. Do you accustom your pupils to make their own tables and chronology?
8. Do you occasionally give out a particular period in the history of a country, and the world, as an exercise in composition or conversation, pointing out several authors to be consulted on the subject?
9. Do you make your lesson in history at the same time a reading lesson?
10. Do you aim, by the aid of pictorial representation, poetic extracts, and vivid oral description, to enlist the imagination in realizing the scenery, occupations, and customs of the people whose history they are studying?
11. Do you avoid the common method of assigning a certain number of pages for a lesson, and requiring the pupils to answer the prepared questions thereon?
12. Do you aim to conduct your lessons in history mainly with a view of showing them how to study it by themselves, and after they leave school, than of going over much ground?
13. Do you aim to show the influence which certain individuals, and classes of men, exerted on the age and country in which they lived?

DRAWING.

1. Have you acquired the art of drawing as a beautiful and expressive language, and as a valuable aid in the work of education generally; by exercising the eye and the hand, training and enlarging several of the highest faculties of the mind, and cultivating the taste in all that depends on form, proportion, harmony, and colors?
2. Do you not find it an indispensable help in teaching penmanship, geography, physiology, geometry, surveying, navigation, astronomy, mechanics, and natural philosophy?
3. Have you prepared yourself to teach it to your pupils, for its constant and manifold use in almost every occupation in practical life; to all engaged in producing articles of utility, ornament, and taste; and a source of innocent and refining recreation in every home?
4. Do you resort to even its simplest forms and exercises, for the purpose of interesting and employing your youngest pupils, while you are engaged in instructing the more advanced classes?
5. If it is a regular branch in your scheme of instruction, do you teach it on a system; commencing with the first elements, and insisting on your pupils giving their

whole attention to each lesson, and on their acquiring, by constant practice, accuracy and facility in each successive exercise?

6. Do you accustom them to frequent review of the principles already acquired, and teach them to distinguish practically between light and accurate lines, and those which are coarse and careless?

7. Do they draw at different times from copies, models, and nature?

8. Do you require your pupils to preserve their drawings, both as a check on the formation of careless and untidy habits, and as a means of self-criticism?

9. Do you so teach as to make your pupils feel that even moderate success requires attention, exercises the judgment, cultivates the tastes, makes the eye observant and the movements of the hand exact, and at the same time imparts a new, beautiful, and expressive language?

MUSIC.

1. Can you sing by note?

2. Can you play upon any instrument?

3. Do you teach or cause singing in school, either by rote or by note?

4. Do you use singing as a relieving exercise for ill humor or weariness in school?

5. Do you use any instrument, or have any used, as an accompaniment to singing?

6. Do you teach to use the proper musical voice in singing?

7. Do you do so from ear, or from knowledge of the physiology of the vocal organs?

8. How many of your pupils prove on trial unable to understand music, or acquire even a moderate degree of proficiency in the practice?

GOVERNMENT.

1. Do you enter on your duties in the school-room in the right spirit, in good health, and with the right preparation for your work?

2. Do you aim to make your children love you, by exhibiting a strong sympathy in their pursuits, and a fondness for their company?

3. Do you attend strictly to punctuality, regularity, and order in your own duties?

4. Do you perform your work with animation, exercise constant patience, and never lose your temper?

5. Do you exhibit firmness, impartiality, kindness, and parental regard toward your scholars?

6. Do you see that your pupils are all properly seated and every way physically comfortable, as to light, air, and temperature?

7. Do you see that all your children at all times have something to do, and a motive for doing it?

8. Do you make order, quietness, and obedience, the *habit* of your school?

9. Do you aim to enlist the affection and activity of the older pupils in doing good to you and the school?

10. Do you give rewards of any kind? places in the class? ticket? prizes, as part of your system of government?

11. What punishments are inflicted? corporal punishment? confinement? detention after school is dismissed? loss of place in class? imposition of tasks? and for what offenses are these and other punishments inflicted?

12. If corporal punishment is inflicted, what is the instrument used? When and where is the chastisement given?

13. Are you careful to avoid a spirit of fault-finding, and to improve every proper occasion for a judicious use of praise?

14. Are you careful to administer rebuke more in sorrow than in anger, and in a way to evince a real regard for the feelings of the delinquent?

15. Do you try to secure the co-operation of parents in the government of the school?

16. Have you had cases of thoroughly incorrigible pupils? and if so, what did you do with them?

17. Do you find that emulation, or the desire of surpassing, can be employed as a motive to study and good behavior, without stirring up jealousy, envy, and ill-will, and be made subordinate to the cultivation of kind and generous feelings?

18. Are your rewards bestowed mainly for evidence of intellectual capacity, or for habitual industry, regular acquisition, and general good conduct in relation to the duties of the school?

19. Are your punishments unmingled with exhibition of personal feelings, such as anger, scorn, sneer, or triumph?

20. Do you pay proper regard to the physical condition of the culprit, such as a disordered nervous system, natural irritability and restlessness of temperament, or debility of body, in administering punishment?

21. Have you observed that punishment is effectual in proportion to its certainty more than to its severity? and more from the manner, than its frequency?

EXAMINATIONS.

1. Have you periodical reviews of lessons? weekly? monthly? quarterly?
2. Do you conduct the reviews by oral or written questions and answers?
3. Do public examinations of the pupils take place periodically? monthly? quarterly? half yearly? annually?
4. Who conducts the examinations? Legally appointed committees? Disinterested persons on invitation? The teacher?
5. On what principle are the examinations conducted? Is the whole month's, quarter's, half-year's, year's work stated, and the portions examined fixed by the examiners or teacher?
6. Are parents invited to be present?
7. Do many parents attend? How can they be induced to attend more frequently?

PARENTAL AND PUBLIC INTEREST.

1. How many visits have been made to your school during the current year or term, by committees?
2. How many parents have visited your school during the same period?
3. How many visits, official and otherwise, have been paid to your school during the year or term?
4. How many times have you been invited to the homes of your pupils?
5. Specify the circumstances that appear to you to operate most in retarding, in your locality, the progress of sound and comprehensive education?
6. What improvements do you consider desirable in the organization or administration of your school?

OTHER MEANS OF POPULAR EDUCATION.

1. Number of private or select schools in the district, or neighborhood?
2. Grade and designation of each?
3. Number of pupils in each grade?
4. Rate of tuition per term?
5. Influence of these schools on the common schools?
6. Can the common school be so improved in organization, studies, or discipline as to supersede them, in whole or in part?
7. Name of every lyceum or literary society, with date and names of the individuals principally engaged in organizing the same?
8. Number of members? Terms of admission? Regular exercises of each?
9. Are there any exercises calculated to interest and instruct the community, beyond those who are enrolled as members?
10. Can any or all of these societies be improved so to act more directly on, or in harmony with the instruction of the common school?
11. Name of any library, not connected with the common school? Date and circumstances of its establishment?
12. Number of volumes? Average annual increase? Means for purchasing new books?
13. Number of persons having access to? Conditions for drawing books?
14. What has been the influence of the library on the mental and moral culture of the community?
15. Do you know any striking examples of the influence of even a good common school education in raising individuals born under circumstances of extreme poverty, to positions of the highest usefulness?
16. Have you any facts to show the difference between the pecuniary value of educated and uneducated laborers—between the laborer with his hands, and the laborer with his hands and his mind?
17. Have you any facts to show the relations of a defective and faulty education, in the periods of infancy and childhood, to insanity? The influence of excessive mental labor on inherited predisposition to insanity?
18. Have you any facts to show the influence of idleness and ignorance in leading to a career of crime?
19. Do you know of a single instance of a criminal, whose early home and school education was properly attended to?
20. Is any additional legislation necessary to protect children under fourteen years of age from excessive labor, and secure to them, from parents, guardians, or employers, the privileges of an elementary education?
21. Have you any vagrant and neglected children in your district? Would not a school of industry be desirable for such children?
22. Do you know of instances of young criminals having been made worse by having been sent to the county jail or state prison? Is not a state reform school needed for such persons?

Such was the nature and extent of the information sought. The form in which the information was sought, was intended, whenever practicable, to invite attention to the defects, if any, or the remedy proposed. The mode of obtaining it, was—

1. By personal inspection and inquiry.

For this purpose, and the collateral object of disseminating information thus collected, and awakening public interest, I devoted more than two thirds of the first two years of my appointment, and a considerable portion of the last two. During the four years, I have visited more than two-thirds of all the towns and school societies of the State, have inspected more than five hundred schools while in session, have conferred with more than 1,200 school teachers, and with one or more school visitors or district committee in every society or district visited, have questioned children in the school and out of it, as to the modes in which they were taught, and to ascertain the universality and practical nature of the education given in these schools, I have inquired as to the early intellectual and moral education of large numbers of persons who have become a burden and an expense to the community, by their vices, poverty, and crime.

To enable me to correct and compare the results of my own observation, I have employed, at my own expense, at different times, six persons practically acquainted with, and deeply interested in, the subject, from many years' experience as teachers or school visitors, to visit most of the towns in six, out of the eight, counties of the state. The report of one of these gentlemen, who has visited 57 towns, including 69 school societies, and addressed the children in 154 schools, and 76 public meetings of parents and friends of education, is herewith appended.

2. By official returns from school visitors.

Agreeable to the provisions of the act of 1838, blank forms for statistical returns, including the most important points of inquiry above specified, were prepared and forwarded to school visitors, in 1839 and 1840, and returns were received, in the course of the two years, from all but fifteen school societies. In 1841, information, varying in some particulars, was received from the same class of officers, in a series of connected remarks.

3. By the annual reports of school visitors to their respective societies.

More than one hundred of these documents, evincing the most minute and faithful inquiry, and containing the results of wide and long continued observation and reflection, have been forwarded to this department.

4. By replies to circulars and letters of inquiry.

More than three thousand circular letters, embracing, at different times, most of the points omitted in the returns of school visitors, have, in the course of four years, been addressed to gentlemen known to be interested in, and well acquainted with, the subjects on which information was sought. These applications have been invariably treated with respect, and, in most instances, the replies have been full, and satisfactory.

5. By statements and discussions, in county conventions, and local school meetings.

In these meetings, called by public notice, and open to free discussion, the most important features of our school system have been fully considered, and many interesting and important facts stated, on the personal knowledge of teachers and school officers.

6. By reports from voluntary associations for the improvement of common schools.

Associations of this character have been formed in all parts of the State, some of which have prosecuted the object had in view with zeal and perseverance, and communicated, from time to time, to this department, the results of their labors.

The information, collected in these various modes, have been classified, condensed, and compared, and the results have been communicated, from time to time, to the Legislature, and to the people, through the Reports of the Board, the Connecticut School Journal, and addresses at public meetings.

II. In 1838, there was a great want of information respecting the schools, school systems, and progress of popular education generally, in other states and countries.

I have no reason to suppose there was as many as a dozen reports, or books re-

lating to the school systems of other states, out of the office of the Commissioner of the School Fund, in the State. An impression prevailed, to some extent, that the Connecticut common school system, if not the only one, was certainly the best in the world, and that little or no attention had been bestowed on this great subject by the legislatures or people of other states and countries. It seemed to me desirable to correct this erroneous impression, and to show to the Legislature and people, that much had been already accomplished, and more was in progress, to devise, extend, and perfect systems of public education, on both sides of the Atlantic, and that in this field, nations were now engaged in generous rivalry with each other. Without invidiously any disparagement to our own school system, or wishing to hold up the schools or school systems of other countries as perfect models for our imitation or adoption, it seemed desirable to disseminate a knowledge of the nature, extent, and results of these efforts, on the broad catholic principle, 'that the true greatness of a state does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting what it appropriates.' Other states had acted on this policy. Prussia, near the beginning of the present century, sent some of her best teachers into Switzerland to study the methods of instruction pursued by Pestalozzi and other educators, and has, from time to time, engrafted upon her system, such modifications, and tried in her normal schools, such methods as the experience of other countries had proved to be advantageous, and adapted to her circumstances. Holland, through the agency of her school inspectors, and voluntary associations, has made her teachers acquainted with the methods and practices of the best schools in other countries. France, in 1811, commissioned Baron Cuvier, and in 1830 and 1836, M. Cousin, to visit Holland, Prussia, and other German States, and inquire into the condition of the public schools. The reports of these distinguished men were widely circulated at the expense of the government, and the report of the latter, especially, have been widely circulated in other countries. England, through her Board of Poor Law Commissioners, before organizing her schools for the training of pauper children, commissioned intelligent men to examine the best schools in Scotland, Holland, Switzerland, and other Continental States, in order to profit by their experience. The same course has been pursued in this country. The original Free School System of New England, as established in Massachusetts, was but a modification of the parochial schools of Scotland and Germany. The first school law of Connecticut, enacted in 1650, is almost a literal transcript of the school law of Massachusetts, passed in 1647. And the school systems of nearly all the states have been framed substantially after these two—all of them, however, embracing some modifications, better to adapt them to their peculiar circumstances, and to keep pace with the progress of society. In 1835, the legislature of New York published an outline of the Prussian school system, consisting of answers given by a gentleman then travelling in this country as commissioner from the king of Prussia, to a series of questions proposed by the Superintendent of Common Schools. This was afterwards reprinted by the legislature of Massachusetts. In 1836, Prof. Stowe was requested by the legislature of Ohio to collect, during his contemplated tour in Europe, facts and information in relation to the various systems of public instruction, and to make report thereof on his return. This report, which was confined principally to elementary public instruction in Prussia and Wirtemberg, was printed by order of the legislature, and subsequently published by the legislatures of Pennsylvania, Michigan, Massachusetts, and other states. In 1839, President Bache, after two years of personal examination, made a report on the state of education in orphan institutions, and schools of primary and secondary instruction in Europe, which constitutes an octavo volume of 666 pages. This volume is one of the most valuable contributions which has been made to the cause of education.

The information embodied in these various reports respecting public elementary education in Europe, was spread before the Legislature as an appendix to my report in 1840, and sent to every school district, together with selections from more than thirty publications besides. This document is equal to a volume of 400 pages of the same type as the statutes of the state, and is believed to be the most complete account of public elementary education embodied in a single volume.

The more recent school documents, in several of the United States, and especially in Massachusetts and New York, have been marked by great ability and

research, and have thrown much light on the actual condition, and modes of improving common schools. By an interchange of documents, and personal and written communications with gentlemen connected with this department in their respective states, and some opportunities of personal inspection of the schools, I have aimed to make myself acquainted with the progress of education in the United States. Such portions of the above documents, and such facts as I have been able to collect in other ways, which seemed applicable to our own circumstances for warning, encouragement, or imitation, have been, from time to time, communicated to the legislature, and to the public.

It would be strange, if an effort to disseminate a knowledge of this glorious progress of universal education in different states and countries, of this common effort of the nations to lift from human nature the burden of ignorance and error, of this glorious emulation in adding to the common stock of human knowledge, virtue, and happiness, should be made a matter of reproach; and much more, if it should be so far misconstrued as to be regarded as evidence of a deliberate purpose on the part of any man, or any body of men, to impose a foreign school system upon Connecticut. Certain it is, that Connecticut, if she is true to her past history, will not long remain cold and lifeless amid this common zeal for improvement, this universal sympathy and effort to promote the dignity of man.

III. In 1838, no facilities had been offered to such persons as wished to become teachers, to prepare themselves by an appropriate course of study, and a practical acquaintance with the labors and duties of the school-room, for the work.

The necessity or importance of providing such facilities in regard to the profession and art of teaching, as the common sense and universal experience of mankind had proved to be important and necessary in every other profession, and in every other art, had been but little discussed in our public journals, in legislative halls, or in public addresses. The want of information and interest on this subject it has been a leading object to provide for through the Journal, in reports to the Legislature, and in every form of reaching the public mind. As a demonstration of what might be done to improve the existing qualification of school teachers, arrangements were made in Hartford, in 1839-40, by which, in the autumn, a class of twenty-six young men, and in the spring, a class of sixteen young ladies, were enabled, without any expense to them, to review and continue their studies under the recitations and practical lectures of experienced teachers, and to witness, in the public and private schools of the city, other modes of school arrangement, instruction, and discipline, than those to which they had been accustomed. Every member of these classes was subsequently employed in the common schools, and most of them still continue in the schools.

Some advance has also been made towards organizing a seminary for the training of female teachers, in connection with the education and care of orphan children. This step, if it can be compassed, will be a double service in the State and the cause of education. It will provide a home, and the means of physical, intellectual, and moral culture for a class of children, who most need the succoring aid of individual and public benevolence, and furnish our common schools with a class of teachers, who have been drawn to the work of preparation by a love of the employment, and the highest motive of christian benevolence. As soon as a proper degree of legislative, or individual co-operation is extended to commence this enterprise on a safe footing, the services of one of the most experienced and successful teachers in the country can be secured gratuitously as Principal.*

* With the abolition of the Board this enterprise was abandoned. The teacher referred to was Mrs. Emma Willard, the founder, and for many years the distinguished Principal of the Female Seminary at Troy, N. Y. Female education in this country owes more to her than to any one individual. Besides conducting successfully a large female seminary for a quarter of a century, and educating thousands of the noblest matrons and teachers of the land, she was fortunate enough, by interesting De Witt Clinton, and other influential public men in New York, to secure an appropriation of a portion of the income of the literature fund to seminaries for female education, and thus place them on a footing of equality with the academies for boys. Mrs. Willard was born in the parish of Kensington, in Berlin, Conn., and commenced her career as a teacher in the common school of her native district. In the same parish, thirty-five years afterwards (1841), she was invited by the school visitors to superintend the summer schools, which she did, infusing new life into the schools, and interesting the mothers of the children in the work of their education.

IV In 1838, there were, in the State, comparatively, but few books on education, and particularly of a class calculated to interest, inform, and assist school officers, parents, and teachers in the work of improving common schools.

To remedy this defect in part, the Connecticut Common School Journal was established. By turning to the subjects treated of in the course of the four years, in the index annexed, it will be seen, that almost every topic connected with the practical working of our own school system, and the mechanical arrangements, means of instruction, classification, discipline, methods, and studies, of common schools, is discussed. Copious selections from standard writers on education, and original communications from experienced and successful teachers and educators, have been published. During the past year, extracts from ten or twelve new books for the use of teachers, and an entire work on slate and black board exercises, have been published. If the methods illustrated and described in this last treatise could be tried in all the schools, it would change the entire aspect of common school education.

In addition to the time, labor and expense devoted to the Journal, no efforts have been spared to promote the circulation of such works as Palmer's Teacher's Manual, Abbott's Teacher, Hall's Lectures, Dunn's Schoolmaster's Manual, Davis' Teacher Taught, Dwight's Schoolmaster's Friend, Confessions of a Schoolmaster, District School as it was, Wood's Sessional School, Lessons on Objects, Hints and Methods for Teachers, Dr. Alcott's Slate and Black Board Exercises, &c. I have reason to suppose, that there are now at least two thousand volumes more of such works owned by, or accessible to, teachers and school visitors, than there were in the State in 1840. One gentleman alone has been instrumental in disposing of more than one thousand volumes, in the course of the last year.

V. Prior to 1838, no efforts had been made on the part of the Legislature or of individuals,* to prepare and make known improved plans of school-house architecture.

In no department of the system was there more pressing necessity for improvement, at once thorough and general, than in this. In no other, were there to be found so few instances which could be pointed to as models for imitation. In no other were the disastrous results of neglect so little appreciated, or the standard of practical attainment, so low. More than nine tenths of all the district school-houses erected prior to 1838, and which have not been since renovated, are incomplete and forlorn specimens, at best, of what such structures should be. They stand in, or directly on, the public highway, and not unfrequently in bleak, and unsheltered situations, without any playground or appropriate out buildings. They are unattractive without, and small, inconvenient, and uncomfortable within. They are imperfectly supplied with the means of ventilation, and uniform temperature. They are so lighted, that the eyesight of the scholar is not unfrequently endangered by the glare of the sun, and their attention distracted by every passing object. The seats are invariably too high, and the general arrangement and construction of the seats and desks are not calculated to promote the health, comfort, and successful labor of the pupils, or convenient supervision by the teacher. But bad as most of them were originally, they are rendered worse from the want of proper care and timely and necessary repairs. Almost every old school-house which I have visited, is hacked and disfigured, and in not a few instances disgraced by improper, profane, or licentious images.

Such was the condition of many, very many, of these "moral beauties" of Connecticut—of these village nurseries of health, virtue, and intelligence. They stood, and many of them still stand, in mournful and disgraceful contrast with every other edifice erected for public or domestic use. The hand of improvement and taste, which had reached other structures,—our colleges, academies, retreats, prisons, bridges, had not reached them.

To effect a reform in the location, construction, and furniture of the district schoolhouse, public attention was early and earnestly called to the subject. The many evil influences, direct and indirect, on the health, manners, morals, and intellectual progress of children, which grew out of their bad and defective structure, were pointed out. The improved plans which had been published by individuals, educational societies, and legislatures in other states, were procured and made

* The premium offered by Erastus Ellsworth, Esq., of East Windsor, in 1837, for the best model of a school desk, should be excepted.

known through the Journal and public addresses. New plans were devised, with the advice of experienced school teachers and architects, and furnished gratuitously to such districts as were building new, or re-modelling their old houses. Considerable effort has been made, and expense incurred, to induce at least one district in each county to erect such a building as could be pointed to as a model in the essential features of a good school-house, and to supply suitable apparatus and a library for the children, teacher, and parents generally.

The result is, that within the last four years, more than fifty new school-houses have been erected, and a greater number of old ones entirely re-modelled in their interior arrangements, on correct principles, and with the latest improvements. The advance which has been made in this department, both in public opinion and in public action, is secure from accident, for it is put into brick and mortar, and other durable materials. Still, the work is but just begun, and there are many district school-houses old, repulsive, and uncomfortable, which should give way to new, attractive, and convenient structures. To aid in this work of reform, I have embodied, in the accompanying report,* the results of my observation and reflection on the general principles of school-house architecture, with such plans and descriptions of various structures recently erected or prepared, as will enable any district to frame one suitable to their own wants, free of expense.

VI. In 1838, no efforts had been made to provide the district schools with libraries, and such cheap apparatus as was considered indispensable in the best conducted private schools.

Out of 1400 schools of which information was obtained by personal inspection, or returns from school visitors, there were but six libraries, containing in all less than one thousand volumes, and but two globes.

To remedy this state of things, districts were empowered to raise, by tax, a small sum annually, to be expended in the purchase of school libraries and apparatus; and the advantages of good books open to all the children and inhabitants of a school district, and of every form of visible illustration in the work of instruction, has been discussed in the Journal, and in public addresses. Through the same channels, directions have been given for making the more simple, but useful, forms of apparatus, such as black board, numeral frames, outline maps, and globes, and the best methods of using them. Some assistance has also been rendered to districts, in purchasing and procuring libraries and apparatus. In this way, to my personal knowledge, more than three thousand volumes have been added to district libraries, and more than one hundred different articles of apparatus been supplied within the last two years. Of the treatise on slate and black board exercises, spoken of in another place, one thousand copies, at least, will be distributed gratuitously in the State.

VII. In 1838, the condition of the common schools, and the means of popular education generally, in the cities and large villages of the State, was deplorable. There was not one, which had a system of common schools at all adequate to its educational wants. Not one, in which there were not many expensive private schools, patronized by nearly all the professional, educated, and wealthy families, and by many others who were desirous of procuring the best education for their children.

The attendance on the common schools was small. Out of all the children between the ages of four and sixteen in the six cities, less than one half were nominally connected with the common schools, in summer or in winter, and less than one third were in regular attendance; more than fifteen hundred were not in the private or public schools in the winter of 1839-40; and about one fourth were in private schools. For the tuition alone, of those who attended the private

* The report referred to, of which more than one hundred and twenty thousand copies in different forms, and with more or less of the illustrations have since been printed and circulated in this country, and five thousand copies in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and copious extracts illustrated with a number of the plans, translated into the Swedish, German, and French languages, found so little favor with the Joint Standing Committee on Education of the Legislature of Connecticut in 1842, as to be deemed unworthy of being "printed by order of the General Assembly." And it was only by the personal efforts of a friend of Mr. Barnard, Hon. Alfred Blackman, a member of the Senate, that this honor was secured for an edition large enough to supply each district with a copy. Even then Mr. Barnard had to pay the cost of the plans which accompanied the document.

schools; numbering about twenty-five hundred, a sum equal to what was provided by the State for the education of forty thousand children in the district schools, was voluntarily expended.

The school-houses provided in the cities, could not seat, at any one time, one half of the children who were entitled to go to them; and, with a single exception, in New Haven, there was not one which could be pointed to as a model in respect to location, size, ventilation, and the construction and arrangements of seats and desks.

There was great inequality in the means of a common school education in the same city. Each city was divided up into districts, and these districts differed from each other in territorial extent, population, pecuniary ability, wages and qualifications of teachers, parental interest, and the supervision of the committees. The result was, a vast inequality in the education of children of the same city, residing in different districts.

There was a want of system in regard to the studies, books, methods of instruction, and discipline, in the schools of the same city. This subjected a class of the population, whose sole reliance is on these schools, to an unnecessary expense, whenever they changed their residence, and retarded the progress of their children, in passing into different schools.

The course of instruction in most of the city districts, was limited to the mere elementary studies; in all of them, in 1838, there were less than one hundred scholars who were attending to the higher branches of an English education.

The mode of providing for the expense of the common schools, over the receipts from the public funds, was, in most of the districts in every city, by quarter bills, or a tax on the scholars, according to the time of attendance, payable by the parent or guardian. This mode of supporting schools, threw upon those parents who sent and were barely able to pay the quarter bills of their own children, the quarter bills of those who could not, and thereby imposed on them a tax for this purpose, equal to all the other taxes of the city. Its general operation was, to lower the standard of common school education to that point, which the public money, with a small quarter bill, would maintain, to tempt parents to keep their children at home on any trifling occasion for their services, and to exempt those who are best able to bear it, the class who patronize private schools, from all expense in behalf of the education of the poor.

The interest of the community, or of parents, in the common schools, as indicated by attendance in school meetings, by expenditures for school purposes, by visits to the schools, and general co-operation with teachers and committees, was even lower than in the country districts generally.

To remedy these and other evils in the condition of the common schools in our cities the attention of individuals, committees, and the public, has been called to them by means of the press, public addresses, and conversation, and to the following plan for their improvement, or such modification of the same as shall be better adapted to the wants of each place.

1. A union of the several districts in a city, or at least, some concert of action among them, for the purpose of bringing all the schools into one system of studies, books, classification and management, and making the school interest one of the leading interests of the whole city.

2. The establishment of schools of different grades, for children of different ages and studies.

First—Primary schools, for the young children, to be located in different parts of the city. In this class of schools, the arrangements of the school-room, play ground, studies, and exercises, should be adapted to promote the health, manners, moral culture, and the gradual and harmonious development of the mind of the very young. Oral teaching, in respect to real objects, maps and figures, habits of observation, the alphabet, easy lessons in reading, vocal music, drawing, and other lessons on the slate, should constitute the course of instruction. Female teachers, in all cases, should be employed, and the supervision of the schools be mainly left with the mothers of the children.

Second—Intermediate or secondary schools. These schools should take up the education of the children where the primary schools leave it, and carry it forward to as high a point as is now attained in the first classes of the best district schools. If the foundation was properly laid in the primary school, and teachers properly qualified employed in both, it is believed that all which is now taught in our best

common schools, could be accomplished at the age of twelve, and thus four years, at least, in the school period of most children, be saved. In this class of schools, there should be a male and female principal, as the influence of both are needed at this stage of the moral education, and the manners, of children.

Third—A high school, with two departments, one for boys, and the other for girls. This school should receive such pupils as are found qualified in the studies of the secondary schools, on due examination, and conduct them forward in algebra, geometry, surveying, natural, moral, and mental philosophy, political economy, the history and constitution of Connecticut and the United States, book-keeping, composition, and drawing, with reference to its use in various kinds of business. Whatever may be the particular studies, this school should afford a higher elementary education than is now given in the district school, and, at the same time, furnish an education preparatory to the pursuits of commerce, trade, manufactures, and the mechanical arts. All that is now done in this way for the children of the rich and the educated, should be done for the whole community; so that the poorest parent who has worthy and talented children, may see the way open for them to a thorough and practical education. In some districts or cities, the studies of this school might be included in the secondary school, in case there were not scholars enough to constitute a school by itself, and the two departments might also be united for this purpose. However constituted, whether as one department or two, as a distinct school, or as part of the secondary school, something of the kind is needed to make the pleasures and advantages of a good education common, and to draw in the children, the means, and the interest, of a large number of parents whose regards are now turned exclusively to private schools.

Fourth—As a part of the system of common schools for cities, I have urged the establishment of evening schools for such young persons as are hurried into the counting room, the store, or the workshop without a proper elementary education, or for another class who have had such advantages, and may wish to pursue such studies of the high school as are connected with their several trades and pursuits. By means of such schools, the defective education of many of the youth of our cities might be remedied, and their various employments be converted into the most efficient instruments of self-culture.

3. Each grade of schools should be provided with suitable school-rooms, playground, and class-rooms. They should also be furnished with maps, diagrams, globes, and other forms of illustration, so that the knowledge acquired may be vivid, accurate, and practical. To enable the teacher to give oral and explanatory instruction, and the scholar to carry on his investigations beyond the point where his teacher and class book may leave it, a library of well selected books should be provided.

4. The same studies, books, course of instruction, and discipline generally, should be adopted in all the schools of the same class. To secure this uniformity, and bring the teachers and scholars under constant inspection, the management of the schools, and the property and concerns of the district should be left with a committee, or board, elected by the people, and subject to their directions. To give stability and efficiency to the measures of the board, it might be provided, that one third, at least, of their number, should have been members the year previous, and one person should be designated to devote his whole time to the prosperity of the schools.

5. To place these schools on their old footing, and interest the whole community in their welfare,* I have advocated the abandonment of quarter bills, or charge

* Without changing his views of the justice and policy of taxing property, whether it represents children or not, for the support in part of public education, Mr. Barnard has since 1842 advocated a modification rather than an entire abandonment of the system of rate bills. A small tuition, fixed and payable in advance, so low as to be in reach of the poor, and collected of all in advance, will serve to remind parents of their responsibility, and in the aggregate, will be a large addition to the pecuniary means of a district. The amount of money placed at the disposal of the committee, and the manner in which it is expended is of more importance than the manner in which it is raised. Mr. Barnard would place the duty of education, and of the support of schools; 1st, on the parents of the children; 2d, on the neighborhood or community where they live; and 3d, on the State. The appropriation on the part of the State should be so raised and expended, as to quicken the impulses of parental duty, and ensure the liberality and supervision of the local committee and community.

per scholar, and making property, whether it represented children or not, chargeable with their support. This is the cardinal idea of the free school system, and with the aid now furnished from the school fund, which is appropriated for the equal benefit of all the people, this charge cannot be considered burdensome. This, too, is the practice of every city which has an efficient system of common schools. The practical abandonment of it in our cities, has led to the withdrawal of the children, and the active interest, of the wealthy, from the common schools. Many parents who now send to private schools, would send to the common schools, if they were taxed annually for their support; and many more, if by that tax, and the interest it would excite, the common schools were made better than they now are.

Such was the condition of common schools in our cities, and such the course pursued and recommended, to improve it. The present condition of these schools is such as to justify the assertion, that some advance, at least, has been made in public action, and much more in public opinion, in regard to them.

VIII. Prior to 1838, no inquiry had been instituted into the condition of education in the manufacturing districts, nor the extent to which the requisitions of the law, as to the duty of owners and proprietors of factories, and manufacturing establishments, to the children employed by them, were complied with.

Since that time, this whole subject has been investigated, and facts ascertained and published, which should have alarmed and aroused a community, which had made provision near two centuries ago, "that not a single child should be found unable to read the holy Word of God, and the good laws of the Colony." It was found, that there were parents, born in Connecticut, who could sell their children into the ransomless bondage of ignorance, for the miserable pittance which their services would earn—that there were owners of factories who would employ such children, when they knew their earnings were made at the sacrifice of their education, and were applied to support the idle and dissipated habits of one or both of the parents—that at one time, there were twenty-four children employed in a single factory, who could not write their names, and five, who could neither read or write—and that not in a single town had a board of visitation, as directed by law, been organized, to examine and ascertain the existence of such facts, and apply the remedy.

But apart from these, and other examples which might be cited, of the utter abandonment of the education of children employed in early, and frequently excessive, labor in factories, it was found that many who did attend school, did so irregularly, and without books, so that their school privileges were almost lost. The condition, too, of the houses of the work people, the want of libraries, lectures, and other means of intellectual and moral improvement, in many of our manufacturing villages, was such as to call loudly on the patriotism and benevolence of employers, and of all who regard it as the highest praise of a State, to have a healthy, moral, and intelligent population, for more systematic efforts at improvement.

This subject, in its various bearings, especially as connected with good common schools, lectures, libraries, &c., I have frequently discussed in my reports, public addresses, the Journal, and interviews with school committees, and gentlemen interested in it. The course which I have generally recommended in voluntary efforts has been,

1. To improve the physical and social condition of the manufacturing population, by making their homes more convenient and attractive, and attaching to each tenement a piece of ground for the cultivation of garden vegetables and flowers.

2. To provide, encourage, and sustain, all games and pursuits, of an innocent and rational character, such as are directly calculated to develop the physical frame, to counteract any unfavorable tendencies in their mode of employment, to inspire cheerful thoughts, and tend to promote better social relations, by being shared in by rich and poor, the more and the less favored in intellectual improvement.

3. To see that the district schools are organized on the best system, and kept open the year round, so that a portion of the children of the proper age might be kept at school punctually and regularly for at least half the year, or for such period as they did attend. The school in a manufacturing district should not only be as good, but better, than such schools in the country districts, to counter-

act the unfavorable tendencies of a monotonous and unintellectual employment. The studies, too, should be different, and some of them be adapted to improve the skill, and direct the inventive faculties, of the pupils, in the arts to which they are devoted during part of the year, and are likely to be for life. For this purpose, drawing, and the first principles of practical mechanics, and chemistry, should be taught at school, or in evening classes.

4. To establish evening schools, or classes, for such as are necessarily employed during the day, or may wish to pursue a particular study not taught in the day school.

5. To encourage and provide lectures in the winter season; either a regular course, on some department of science connected with the pursuits of the district, or a miscellaneous course, calculated to supply interesting and profitable topics of conversation, stimulate inquiry, direct the reading of the young, bring all classes together, and thus cultivate happier social relations.

6. To assist in the establishment of school and social libraries, and to contribute, from time to time, to the purchase of new books, and especially of that class, which relate to the history, biography, scientific principles, or improvement of the prevalent occupation of the inhabitants.

To enable and assist individuals to carry out these and other steps for improving the condition of manufacturing districts, and above all to prevent the continuance of existing abuses, some legislative action is necessary. For this purpose it has been recommended to the Legislature to provide,

1. That no child under fourteen years of age shall be employed in any factory or manufacturing establishment more than eight hours during the day, and entirely prohibiting their employment at night.

2. That no child under that age shall be employed at all, unless such child can show a certificate of attendance on some day school, either public or private, for at least three months of the twelve next preceding.

3. That a penalty for any and every violation of such enactments should be paid by the person found guilty of so doing, for the use of the common school in the district.

4. That provision be made, or at least some inducement offered, for the establishment of libraries in every district in the State, manufacturing, as well as agricultural.

Although no legislative action has followed these recommendations, it is believed that individuals, committees, and districts have been more interested in the attendance of the children, the improvement of the schools, and means of education generally, in manufacturing villages, than before. In some, a more vigorous public sentiment has been created, which, in an intelligent community, will throw around children a protection stronger than law. In others, voluntary associations have carried out some one or more steps of improvement. In others, individuals have contributed largely to establish libraries, and procure popular lectures. The manufacturing village of Greenville, can boast of better school-houses, a more complete system of public schools, a more numerous, as well as a larger average attendance of children of the school age, than any city or village of the State. The efforts to improve the schools of this village, commenced earlier than 1838, but since that time, the two districts have united two elegant, convenient, and even model school-houses have been erected, a gradation of schools established, school apparatus provided, and the services of competent teachers at the highest rate of wages secured.

So important have I regarded this subject in view of the probable growth of the manufacturing interest in Connecticut, that I have prepared a separate report on the "*Legal provisions respecting the education and employment of children in factories,*" &c., in this country and in Europe. In this document, I have added an account of what has been done by the proprietors of a small manufacturing village in England, and by the largest manufacturing town in the United States, to promote the physical, social, moral, and intellectual improvement of the manufacturing population. Accompanying it, is a mass of valuable evidence, under the head of "*Education and Labor,*" showing the importance of a good common school education to every form of human industry.

IX. In 1838, the difficulties which still impair so largely the usefulness of many of the district schools, had not been sufficiently investigated, with a view to discover their origin, or ascertain the remedies.

These difficulties arose principally from the want of systematic classification and regulation of the schools—from the crowding together of a large number of scholars of every age, in a great variety of studies, and greater variety of text books, under one teacher in the summer, and another teacher in winter, and not under the same teacher for two summers or two winters in succession. Under a good teacher these difficulties are almost insurmountable, and under a poor one, they defeat, in a great measure the usefulness of the schools. These evils were increased by the late and irregular attendance of the children, and the want of interest, visitation, and supervision, on the part of parents and committees.

To expose and discuss these difficulties and evils, to induce parents to correct such as grow out of their own neglect and want of coöperation, and clothe the proper school authorities with power to remove and correct such as did not, has been a leading object of my labors. The mode of doing this, will be seen in the two following topics of this report.

X. In 1838, in city and country, in agricultural and manufacturing districts, there was a great want of an intelligent, active, inquiring and generous public interest in the administration and improvement of the common school system. An indifference, wide spread and profound, characterized the action and views of individuals, and of the community on the whole subject.

All this was indicated in the returns made by school committees to the Comptroller under the resolution of the Legislature of 1837. It was evident from the results of personal inquiries made in the winter and spring of 1838. It was complained of universally by members of the General Assembly of that year; and "to discover the origin of this apathy and neglect so much complained of, and to enlist the coöperation of virtuous and intelligent parents in every district," was one of the main objects proposed by the Joint Select Committee on Common Schools, for organizing this Board. It was felt and encountered by me in the outset of my labors, as the great cause of the inefficiency of the school system, the prolific source of the evils which destroyed in a great measure, the usefulness of the schools, and the great obstacle to be overcome in the work of improving and perfecting the means for the more thorough and complete education of all the children in the State. This want of interest—this paralyzing and disheartening indifference on the part of individuals and the community, was shown and felt in various ways.

The attendance at the regular warned meetings of school societies and districts was thin, and the doings of such meetings confined principally to the transaction of such business as was absolutely necessary to the receiving of the school fund dividends. In six of the largest societies of the State, the annual meeting for 1837, duly warned, was attended by three persons. In two others, including an aggregate of more than thirteen hundred voters, the meeting was adjourned for want of a quorum to transact business. In 1838, the regular business of several of the societies, was gone through by the moderator, the clerk, and society committee. In ten others, which included an aggregate of more than eighteen thousand voters, the aggregate attendance at the annual meeting, was eighty persons, or eight to each society. In thirty more, the annual school officers for the society and district, were chosen by an average of less than thirty voters, while the ordinary business of the town, on the same day, was transacted by an average of more than one hundred persons. In many of the districts, the first and main business was, not to see how many immortal minds were to be improved, and how many children were to be made good citizens, useful men and women, the blessings of this world, and the blessed of another, but how much public money was to be received, and then to square the expenditures to the receipt from this source. The great questions, where and for what can a well qualified teacher be had, what can be done to make the school-house comfortable, convenient, and healthy; to secure the attendance of every child of the proper school age; to supply every poor child with books, and the whole school with a uniform set of class books, with a globe, maps, blackboard, and a library, were not agitated. To make the quarter bill as small as possible, the practice, if not the maxims of many districts, were, "any thing will do for a teacher," "any place for a school-house," and "absolutely nothing for apparatus."

The plainest requirements of the school law had been disregarded. In several instances, the school money had been appropriated to other purposes than to the

paying and boarding of instructors. School-houses had been repaired, and fuel supplied with it. In others, it was paid to teachers who had never been duly appointed and approved; and, indeed, to some, to whom a certificate of qualification had been refused by the legal committee. It was expended on schools, which had not been visited at all by the school visitors, and in several instances, where the two visits required by law, were made on the same day; and, in one instance, where the school had been called together after it had been dismissed, and examined twice in the same afternoon. The certificate of the society committee, which is the only effectual check provided by law on the improper application of the public money, was not unfrequently drawn without any written or personal evidence before the committee, as to the manner in which the provisions of the law had been complied with. In one county alone, it was ascertained that sixteen such certificates had been returned to the Comptroller, from as many school societies, in each of which, one or more of the violations above referred to, had occurred, according to the testimony of the teachers themselves.

But not only was the regular supervision of the schools, and administration of the system marked by great coldness, indifference, and even palpable disregard of the requirements of law, but the great points connected with the internal economy of a school, were but little attended to. The regular and punctual attendance of all the children of a district at school, the advantages of a graduation of schools, of parental visits to the school, of an association of the teachers for mutual improvement, and the visiting of each other's schools, and a public examination of all the schools at least once a year, the evils arising from the improper location, construction, and furniture of school-houses, from a diversity of text books in the same study, from a multiplicity of studies in the same school, from the neglect of the small children and the primary studies, from a constant change of teachers, from the employment of teachers not properly qualified, from severe and unnatural punishment, from the want of suitable apparatus, from the mechanical process of teaching reading, arithmetic, and other studies, from the neglect of moral education, and other subjects, were but little thought of and discussed in the public assembly, in the newspapers of the State, among individuals, or in the reports of school committees. There was but one school society which had made any provision for a written report respecting the condition and improvement of the schools as the basis of such discussions.

Among a class of the community, an impression prevailed, that school-houses, studies, books, mode of management, and supervision, which were good enough for them forty years ago, were good enough for their children now, although their churches, houses, furniture, barns, and implements of every kind, exhibited the progress of improvement. Among others, the principle was avowed, that the school fund was intended for the exclusive benefit of the poor, and that to support the common school by a tax on the property of the whole community was rank oppression on those who had no children to educate, or chose to send them to private schools. Among another and increasing class of the community, who despaired of effecting any improvement in the common schools, private schools of every name and grade, were exclusively patronized. Opinions and practices like these, would destroy the original and beneficent character of the common school, and strike out from it the very principle of progression.

The little interest taken in the common schools, was not only shown directly in the above ways, but was more fatally exhibited indirectly, in the subordinate place assigned it among other objects in the regards and efforts of the public generally, as well as of that large class of individuals who were foremost in promoting the various benevolent, patriotic, and religious enterprises of the day. A meeting for the choice of school officers, or the improvement of the schools, would, by nine individuals out of ten, be considered of less importance than a political caucus, or the choice of the most subordinate officer, civil or military. An examination of all the schools of a society, for the purpose of awarding public preference to faithful teachers, or worthy, talented, and industrious scholars, an exhibition of plans and specimens of improved school-houses, school furniture and apparatus, or of more certain and speedy methods for developing the moral and intellectual faculties of children, would attract far less attention, and excite far less feeling, than a cattle show, a ploughing match, or an exhibition of specimens of improved farming utensils, or of labor-saving machinery of any description. The claims of the

Temperance, the Bible, the Missionary, and other benevolent enterprises, were urged, through the press, the pulpit, and the lecture-room, upon the attention and contributions of the community, while that cause, which, if promoted, would carry along with it every other good cause, had scarcely an advocate, or was not honored by any personal or pecuniary sacrifice.

Such were some of the ways, direct and indirect, in which a want of interest in our common schools was seen and felt. To awaken this interest, to restore the common school to the place it once occupied in the regards of the patriot, the philanthropist, and the christian, to enlist the hearty coöperation of parents, and of the whole community in the work of improvement, and to breathe into every department of its administration, the quickening breadth of a public interest, the press, the living voice, voluntary association, all the agencies, indeed, by which the public mind was reached and informed on other subjects, were appealed to, and, it is believed, not altogether in vain.

1. Public meetings for addresses and discussions on the subject.

A series of public meetings in the several counties, was the earliest step taken to give a vigorous and general impulse to the cause. These meetings were numerously attended by committees, teachers, and the friends of school improvement generally. They collected together those who were most interested in the subject, from nearly every town in the State, and representing every political party, and religious denomination. At these conventions, one or more addresses, calculated to foster a salutary zeal, to disseminate information, and bring all hearts and hands to a united effort were made, and were followed by statements and discussions respecting existing defects and desirable improvements in the organization and administration of the school system, and the government and instruction of the schools. From these conventions, many a friend of school improvement returned to his own town or district full of the spirit and energy which springs from the sympathy of numbers in the same pursuit, to animate others, scatter information, try proposed plans of improvement, and organize local associations for the general object. If the efforts of the Board had stopped here, they would have infused the leven of a new life into the public mind. As an evidence of the impulse communicated, it was stated in my first report, from information than before me, that during the foregoing winter, one or more addresses on this subject were delivered in one hundred and fifteen school societies, and that in upwards of fifty, voluntary associations were formed, to carry out the recommendations of the conventions.

After the first year, similar meetings were held for a smaller number of towns, and finally for a single town. During the past year, I endeavored to enlist sufficient aid to hold a public meeting for addresses and discussions, on the subject, in every school society which I had not previously visited, and through the coöperation of school visitors, in every school district. The last object has been accomplished in a few societies. The first was accomplished in nearly every society in five out of the eight counties.

In the course of the four years, I have addressed one hundred and forty-two public meetings in relation to common schools, and secured the delivery of more than three hundred addresses on the same topics, from gentlemen every way qualified for the work. This number includes those only who have prepared and delivered addresses on my personal, or written application. I have reason to believe, that at least an equal number have been made by clergymen, school visitors and others, at their own option, or the invitation of local associations.

These addresses, so far at least as I have made them, have been confined to the consideration of topics like the following, which have also been recommended for discussion in local school meetings.

[Many of the topics above referred to are included in the following list, subsequently drawn up in the present order, for discussion and addresses on the theory and practice of education by and before teachers. Besides these, the organization of public schools required in villages and cities as distinguished from sparsely populated districts; the disadvantages of small districts, and remedies for the same; the best mode of raising money for the support of common schools and of expending the same; the evils of a constant change of teachers; the gradation of schools as distinguished from the district system, or one school for children of all ages within certain territorial limits, and hundreds of other topics were introduced into addresses before the citizens generally.]

[The following topics, principally on the internal arrangement and management of a common school were introduced by Mr. Barnard into his public addresses, and were drawn up in their present order, to direct in some measure the addresses and discussions, of teachers and others on the theory and practice of education, at meetings held for the special benefit of teachers. It is important that parents, and the public generally should understand the best principles and methods of school arrangement, instruction, and government, that they may sustain and coöperate with the good teacher in his arduous work in the school-room. The other topics thoroughly understood will facilitate the improvement of our school system.]

1. The daily preparation which the teacher should bring to the school-room.
2. The circumstances which make a teacher happy in school.
3. The requisites of success in teaching.
4. Causes of failure in teaching.
5. The course to be pursued in organizing a school.
6. The order of exercises or programme of recitations.
7. The policy of promulgating a code of rules for the government of a school.
8. The keeping of registers of attendance and progress.
9. The duties of the teacher to the parents of the children and to school-officers.
10. The opening and closing exercises of a school.
11. Moral and religious instruction and influence generally.
12. The best use of the Bible or Testament in school.
13. Modes of promoting a love of truth, honesty, benevolence, and other virtues among children.
14. Modes of promoting obedience to parents, respectful demeanor to elders, and general submission to authority.
15. Modes of securing cleanliness of person and neatness of dress, respect for the school-room, courtesy of tone and language to companions, and gentleness of manners.
16. Modes of preserving the school-house and appurtenances from injury and defacement.
17. Length and frequency of recess.
18. The games, and modes of exercise and recreation to be encouraged during the recess, and at intermission.
19. Modes of preventing tardiness, and securing the regular attendance of children at school.
20. Causes by which the health and constitution of children at school are impaired, and the best ways of counteracting the same.
21. The government of a school generally.
22. The use and abuse of corporal punishment.
23. The establishment of the teacher's authority in the school.
24. Manner of treating stubborn and refractory children, and the policy of dismissing the same from school.
25. Prizes and rewards.
26. The use and abuse of emulation.
27. Modes of interesting and bringing forward dull, or backward scholars.
28. Modes of preventing whispering, and communication between scholars in school.
29. Manner of conducting recitations generally; and how to prevent or detect imperfect lessons.
30. Methods of teaching, with illustrations of each, viz :
 - a. Monitorial.
 - b. Individual.
 - c. Simultaneous.
 - d. Mixed.
 - e. Interrogative.
 - f. Explanative.
 - g. Elliptical.
 - h. Synthetical.
 - i. Analytical.
31. Modes of having all the children of a school (composed as most District schools are, of children of all ages, and in a great variety of studies,) at all times something to do, and a motive for doing it.

32. Methods of teaching the several studies usually introduced into public schools—such as—

- a. The use, and nature, and formation of numbers.
- b. Mental Arithmetic.
- c. Written Arithmetic.
- d. Spelling.
- e. Reading.
- f. Grammar—including conversation, composition, analysis of sentences, parsing, &c.
- g. Geography—including map-drawing, use of outline maps, atlas, globes, &c.
- h. Drawing—with special reference to the employment of young children, and as preliminary to penmanship.
- i. Penmanship.
- j. Vocal music.
- k. Physiology—so far at least as the health of children and teacher in the school-room is concerned.

33. The apparatus and means of visible illustration, necessary for the schools of different grades.

34. The development and cultivation of observation, attention, memory, association, conception, imagination, &c.

35. Modes of inspiring scholars with enthusiasm in study, and cultivating habits of self-reliance.

36. Modes of cultivating the power and habit of attention and study.

37. Anecdotes of occurrences in the school, brought forward with a view to form right principles of moral training and intellectual development.

38. Lessons, on real objects, and the practical pursuits of life.

39. Topics and times for introducing oral instruction, and the use of lectures generally.

40. Manner of imparting collateral and incidental knowledge.

41. The formation of museums and collections of plants, minerals, &c.

42. Exchange of specimens of penmanship, map and other drawings, minerals, plants, &c., between the different schools of a town, or of different towns.

43. School examinations generally.

44. How far committees should conduct the examination.

45. Mode of conducting an examination by written questions and answers.

46. School celebrations, and excursions of the school, or a portion of the scholars, to objects of interest in the neighborhood.

47. Length and frequency of vacations.

48. Books and periodicals on education, schools and school systems.

49. Principles to be regarded in the construction of a school-house for schools of different grades.

50. Principles on which text-books in the several elementary studies should be composed.

51. The use of printed questions in text-books.

52. The private studies of a teacher.

53. The visiting of each other's schools.

54. The peculiar difficulties and encouragements of each teacher, in respect to school-house, attendance, supply of books, apparatus, parental interest and co-operation, support by committees, &c., &c.

55. The practicability of organizing an association of the mothers and females generally of a district or town, to visit schools, or of their doing so without any special organization.

56. Plan for the organization, course of instruction, and management generally of a Teachers Institute.

57. Advantages of an Association or Conference of the Teachers of a Town or State, and the best plan of organizing and conducting the same.

58. Plan of a Normal School or Seminary, for the training of Teachers for Common or Public Schools.

2. By addresses to children in the schools.

This course has been adopted by me in most of the schools which I have visited, and by Dr. Field, Mr. Baker, and others. In some societies, the school visitors have always made this a special object in their regular visits. These addresses are found, invariably, to interest the parents through the children.

3. By voluntary associations of parents and others in towns, school societies, and districts, for the improvement of schools.

In many societies, these associations have been very successful in awakening public interest by means of addresses and discussions. These associations have lately assumed a new form, and in this way, promise to become the most efficient instrumentality for awakening public interest, and acting directly on the schools, which has thus far been applied. I refer to the formation of such associations among the mothers, and ladies generally of a district, to improve the common school. From the outset of my labors, I have aimed to enlist the active and zealous coöperation of females, and of mothers especially, in this work. They stand at the very fountain of influence. The cleanliness, dress, manners, and punctuality of the children, and the review or preparation of the school lessons at home, depend mainly on them. By their associated, or even individual efforts, a revolution in our common schools can be effected. Let the mothers of a district read, converse with each other, and become well informed as to what constitutes a good school, and the fathers and voters generally, will hear of it. Let them visit the places where their little children are doomed to every species of discomfort, and improvements in the seats, desks, and the ventilation of the school-room will soon follow. Let them invite the teacher to their homes as a friend and companion, and they will give the teacher of their children her proper position in society, and elevate her in the respect of her scholars. Let them become acquainted with the fact, that many children are kept from the school, especially in cities, for want of proper clothing, and their ready and active charity will soon supply the want.

4. By an association of the teachers of a town or school society.

These associations were recommended, with the expectation that the sympathies of a common pursuit, the mutual benefit of each other's experience, and the discussion of topics which concern their common advancement, would not only attach them to each other, and increase their self-respect, but impress the community with the importance of the profession from its aggregate strength, and with its claims to a higher social and pecuniary consideration.

5. By a meeting of all the schools of a town or school society, with their teachers and parents, at least once a year.

This course was recommended, not only as in accordance with former practice, but as well calculated to impart a healthy stimulus to the teachers and scholars of the several schools, and awaken a lively interest in parents. I have attended several such meetings, and with the highest gratification at the interesting character of the exercises, and the manifest pleasure of the children, teachers, and parents. The occasion has always been improved by appropriate addresses. In some towns, the first impulse to the schools and the parents was imparted by such meetings.

6. By the reports of school visitors on the condition of the schools.

These reports, when prepared with fidelity, and minuteness, and especially when the relative standing of the schools, and of the scholars in the several schools, was specified, have made a powerful impression on the public mind. In some cases, these reports have been read in a public meeting called for that purpose; in others, in the several districts; and in a few instances, they have been printed and circulated through every family. I know of but one instance where such a report was prepared previous to 1838.

7. By the Connecticut Common School Journal.

Amid the jarring conflicts of party, and the louder claims of sectarian and other interests, the peaceful, and unobtrusive cause of education received but little attention from the public press generally, either political or religious. It was felt, that a Journal, kept sacredly aloof from the disturbing influences of party or sectarian differences, and made the organ of communication between committees, teachers and the friends of education in different parts of the State, the depository of all laws relating to schools, and of opinions on questions connected with their administration, and the vehicle of extended discussions and information on the

whole subject, would be highly serviceable in awakening an active, intelligent, and efficient spirit in forwarding the cause.

8. By lyceums, lectures, and libraries.

In ascertaining the means of popular education, and forming plans for its improvement, this class of institutions could not be omitted. They aim to supply the defects of early elementary education, and to carry forward that education far beyond the point where the common school of necessity leaves it. They have been found and can be made still more useful in bringing the discoveries of science and all useful knowledge, to the fireside, and workshop of the laborer; in harmonizing the differences and equalizing the distinctions of society; in strengthening the virtuous habits of the young, and alluring them from vicious tastes and pursuits; and introducing new topics, and improving the whole tone of conversation among all classes. In this way, they create a more intelligent public opinion, which will inevitably, sooner or later, lead to great improvement in the common schools, as well as in all other educational institutions and influences. But apart from their indirect influences, these institutions open a direct avenue to the public mind, by the opportunities for public addresses and discussions on the subject which they afford. These opportunities have been improved to a very great extent.

In the course of the last four years, the number and usefulness of these institutions have been rapidly extended. In all of the cities, and in many of the large villages, courses of lectures on various topics of public interest have been delivered to large assemblages of people, and from the returns of six public libraries alone, it appears that more than ten thousand volumes have been added, while the number of persons having access to them has increased more than twenty fold.

By the intelligent agitation of the subject, which has resulted from the application of these various means for reaching and informing the public mind, much good has already been accomplished, and the way opened for still further improvement, unless the causes fail to operate which have heretofore governed the progress of society.

XI. In 1838, the law respecting school societies and schools, was scattered through various acts, was imperfect in many of its provisions, and needed a thorough and careful revision.

The main features were substantially as they were left in the revision of 1798, but these were overloaded with amendments and additions, that made it exceedingly difficult to understand what the law was. In the course of a half century, the circumstances of society had, in many respects, changed, and it would be strange, that a system of schools, even if well adapted in all its details to its wants then, should be so now. The direct tendencies of our mode of supporting schools, the demand for a wider range of studies, and the multiplication of school books, called for additional legislation. And if legislation on any subject was ever characterized by patient research, careful consideration and harmonious action, it is the legislation of Connecticut for the last four years in regard to common schools.

In 1838, the acts "to provide for the better supervision of common schools," after the careful consideration of a large committee of both Houses, was passed with a single dissenting voice. Any further legislation on the subject was deferred till the actual condition of the schools could be ascertained.

In 1839, various amendments to the law, enlarging the powers of school districts and defining the duties and provisions for the accountability of school officers, were proposed in the report of the Board. These propositions, with others, received the attention of a committee of both Houses, representing equally the political parties, and were embodied in the "Act concerning schools" by an almost unanimous vote.

In 1840, no further legislation was attempted, except to disseminate information respecting the schools of our own and other states, among the several districts, and to request the Board to prepare a draft of a revised school law.

In 1841, this draft was prepared and presented. To assist the Board and Legislature in revising and consolidating the various laws relating to the education of children and schools, the history of each enactment from 1650 to 1840 was traced, and the views of school visitors and others who had been connected with the administration of the system, as to the practical operation and defects of every feature of the law as it stood, were collected and compared.

This draft, with other documents, was referred to the committee on education, by whom the various provisions were discussed, in daily sessions, for several weeks. Several important alterations were made by the committee, most of whom had been teachers and school committees, and all were deeply interested in the improvement of the schools. This committee reported unanimously a bill, which was discussed in both Houses, apparently with a single view of making its provisions more clear and acceptable. After several alterations, both in the House and Senate, the bill passed without a dissenting voice, in the form in which it now stands in the "Act concerning common schools."

No essential alteration was made in the great features of our school system, and its administration depends, as before, on the voluntary action of school societies and districts, and the personal coöperation of parents. I will notice briefly the most important alterations in the detail of the school law, in substantially the same language which was used in recommending their passage.

1. The powers of school districts are enlarged.

Every school district can now elect its own committee, establish one or more schools, employ one or more teachers, and provide suitable school-rooms, furniture, apparatus, and library. For the want of these powers, in many districts, were prevented from carrying out many desirable improvements in their schools.

2. No new district can be formed, or existing one altered, so as to be left with less than forty children between the ages of four and sixteen, except by application to the General Assembly.

The object of this limitation on the formation and alteration of districts, was, to arrest the process of subdivision, by which so many districts were reduced below the ability to maintain a good school for a suitable length of time in a commodious and healthy school-house. It was found, in districts numbering less than forty children, that the school-houses were small, inconvenient and objectionable on the score of health; the compensation of teachers low, and the school sessions short, with long vacations between. In their eagerness to bring the school nearer to every family, the quantity and quality of education given there, was reduced below the average standard. The best schools were found in the large districts, where the children were classified under different teachers, or in the districts numbering over forty, and under sixty children, with an average attendance of about forty scholars, under a well paid, and well qualified teacher, and continued nine or ten months in the year.

The inconveniences of a large district can be more effectually obviated, by dividing the scholars into two schools, than by creating two districts, and thus weakening the ability of both to erect a suitable school-house, and employ a teacher of the right qualification. Some of the most flourishing districts in the State have been ruined by this process of sub-division.

3. Provision is made for the union of two or more districts, for the purpose of maintaining a union school for the older children of the associated districts, while the younger children are left to attend in the several districts, under female teachers.

The union of school districts thus authorized, obviates many of the difficulties and evils of common schools as they are, and secures a much higher degree of improvement with the same means. In a large portion of the district schools, the ages of the scholars range from four to sixteen, or rather from three to eighteen; the studies extend from the first rudiments, to the branches of an academical education; the classes are as numerous as the various studies, increased by the variety of text books in the same branch; and the teachers are constantly changing, from male to female, and from season to season.

Now the plan of union districts, leaving the younger children by themselves, and including the older children together, cuts down by one half the variety of ages, studies, and classes. It enables the teacher to adopt methods of classification, instruction, and government, suited to each grade of schools. It gives much longer, and, in many cases, permanent employment, to female teachers in the primary schools, and dispenses, with the services of all but the best qualified male teachers. It enables the same amount of funds to pay higher wages, for a longer time; for it will be found that the money actually expended in three adjoining districts on three female teachers at the average wages, say \$8 per month, for four months in the summer, and on three male teachers at \$17 per month, for four

months in the winter, will employ three female teachers for six months at \$12 per month, and one male teacher for four months at \$21 per month.

It enables the same teacher to accomplish much more in a shorter time, and the scholar to receive a much larger share of the attention of the teacher, when the classes are few, and the number of each class large, and of the same age and proficiency. While it secures a more thorough attention to the primary studies and the young children, it admits of the introduction of a much wider range of study in the common school, thus equalizing, in a measure, the education of society.

4. The establishment of a common school of a higher grade, for the older and more advanced children of a society, is made more practicable.

Such a school has always been recognized in the school system of Connecticut since its first establishment in 1650. Every town, as soon as it numbered one hundred families, were obliged "to set up a grammar school, the master of which must be able to instruct youths for the university." By a subsequent act, each county town was obliged to maintain a free school, in which, among other branches, the Latin and English languages were to be taught. This law remained till 1798, when every school society was authorized, by a vote of two-thirds, to establish such a school, and to draw its proportion of public money.

The absence of this class of schools is a serious defect in our school system. The place which they should occupy in our system is filled by private schools, in which the tuition is so high as effectually to exclude the children of the poor, or else the studies appropriate to these schools are crowded into the district school to the manifest injury of the primary studies. This state of things is, in every point of view, disastrous. It limits common education to the standard of the district school, and impairs the usefulness of that. It grants a monopoly of a better education to comparatively few in the society. It divides the funds and interest appropriated to educational purposes, and thus renders both portions less efficacious in the general result than the whole would be.

Each school society should not only be empowered, but required, to maintain one or more common schools of a higher order, either as a central school for all the older children of the society, or as union schools, for the older children of two or more associating districts. This would correct the radical evil of the district schools, by cutting down by one half the variety of ages, studies, and classes, lead to the permanent employment of female teachers for the younger children, and do away with most of the difficulties of discipline, at the same time that it would carry forward the education of the older scholars, to a point now only attained in private schools, and rear up a class of better qualified teachers for all the common schools.

One thing is certain, this class of schools will exist. If they are not established and supported as public schools, they will be as private schools. In the former case they become an unmixed good; in the latter, their benefits are confined to the rich, and their bad influence, in the main, falls on the district school, and the social relations of the poor.

5. The employment of competent teachers for at least one third of the year, is made more certain, by providing, 1, that no person shall be employed to teach in a common school, without a certificate of examination and approbation from the school visitors; 2, that no certificate shall be granted to any person not found qualified to teach spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar, thoroughly, and the rudiments of geography and history; 3, that no district shall be entitled to any portion of the public money, unless the school has been kept by a teacher with such a certificate, for at least four months in the year; and 4th, that the public money shall be applied to paying the wages of such teacher, or teachers, and for no other purpose whatever.

The employment of an incompetent teacher can only be effected by the assent of the teacher, the school visitors, and the district committee, against the express provision of the law. The last provision, combined with the progressive increase of the dividends of the school fund, and the higher appreciation of the services of teachers, has increased very much the average wages of teachers in the State since 1839. Prior to that time, the law did not enforce the keeping of the school for any prescribed period, and, in consequence, some of the small districts only kept for two or three months in a year.

6. Every teacher in a common school is required to keep a register of the names, ages, parents, and attendance of every pupil, for the inspection of parents, district committees, and visitors, and to make out a certified abstract of the same at the close of the school.

Without a school register accurately kept, there is no original authenticated source of school statistics—nothing by which the aggregate or average school attendance can be ascertained. Without it, it can never be known how far children are cheated out of their natural right to an education, and apprentices and others to the school privileges which the law and their indentures entitle them to. Without it, the district, or the society, or the State can never know how large a portion of children of the school age are not benefited by the public money, on account of their never entering the district school, and to how much greater extent the privileges of the school are lost, by the late and irregular attendance of those who are enrolled among the scholars of the school.

7. The powers and duties of school visitors are, in some respects, modified, and in all, more clearly defined, for the purpose of securing the more thorough inspection and superintendence of the schools.

Prior to 1798, these powers and duties devolved on the civil authority and selectmen of each town, but in the revision of the school law, in that year, they were transferred to a distinct class of officers, denominated visitors, or overseers of schools, elected by each society, and charged exclusively with them. This change proved highly advantageous for a time, but from the want of a more specific enumeration, and some modification of their powers, to adapt them to the altered circumstances of the schools, and of society, the great object of their appointment from year to year, in a measure, failed. When first appointed, the common school was the main reliance of all classes, for the elementary education of children, and there was, therefore, connected with the discharge of their duties, strong parental, as well as the ordinary official, and benevolent interest. The number of districts were not as large, the schools were kept for only one portion of the year, and the same teachers continued in the employment and in the same district, for a longer time; a change in these particulars has more than doubled the demands on the time and attention of school visitors. The course of instruction was confined to spelling, reading, arithmetic, and writing, and the number of books was limited to one, or at most, two text books in each study. The standard of qualification was therefore confined; there was but little need of regulations as to studies or books. In 1838, it was ascertained that there were eight, and sometimes twelve, different studies in the same school, and more than two hundred different books used in the several studies. There were one hundred and six different authors in the three studies, spelling, reading, and arithmetic. Formerly, there was a high degree of public consideration attached to the office, as well as a lively interest in all that concerned the administration of the school system. The result of the whole was ascertained to be, that the mode of discharging the duties of inspection and superintendence, which is the very life of a school system, and determines, in a great measure, the character of the schools, was inefficient, irregular, and formal at best. To remedy these defects and irregularities, the powers and duties of school visitors are more distinctly defined in the act of 1839.

First.—They may prescribe rules and regulations respecting the studies, books, classification, and discipline of the schools.

Under this provision the visitors have, in some societies, coöperated with the teachers in arranging his classes, enjoined the strictest attention to the primary branches, and prescribed or recommended a set of books for the several studies. This last step, in connection with the provision of the law requiring district committees to see that scholars are supplied with books, by their parents, or at the expense of the district, has lead already in many societies, to the removal of a most serious evil.

Secondly.—They must withhold a certificate from such persons as are not found qualified to teach certain specified branches, and annul the certificates of such as shall prove, on trial, to be unqualified and unfaithful. Low as the requirements of the law are, the fixing of a minimum of qualification has debarred some from offering themselves as candidates, who had previously been teachers; and has sustained the examining committees in rejecting those whose chief recommenda-

tion was their cheapness, or their relationship to some member of the district committee.

Thirdly.—They must visit all of the common schools at least twice during each season of schooling.

One of these visits must be made near the beginning of the term, and the other near the close, so that a right direction can be given to the school, and the final progress be judged of. No adequate substitute can be provided for frequent, faithful, and intelligent visitation of schools, carrying along with it wise counsel for the future to teacher and pupils, encouragement for past success, and rebuke for neglect, defective discipline, and methods of instruction. The mode of visiting should be such as to make known to all the schools the superior methods of any one, and to awaken a generous rivalry between the teachers and scholars of the several schools.

Previous to 1839, the summer schools were not visited at all in many societies. In most, the mode of visiting schools, by dividing them up among a large board, was such, that no one member of the board was acquainted with all the schools, and thus qualified to compare the schools with each other, to point out common defects, and common remedies, or to make general the peculiar excellencies of any one school. No responsibility was felt—no previous preparation made—no systematic measures pursued, and no interest awakened in the public mind, or foundation laid for future progress, in carefully prepared reports of their doings, or on the condition and improvement of the schools. There were some honorable exceptions to this state of things. There were now and then scattered over the State, a board of visitors, some member of which, (usually the clergyman of the place,) had examined all the teachers, and visited all the schools according to law, for ten, twenty, and in two instances, thirty years. But even these 'old standards' were getting tired of their laborious, unpaid, and unthanked services, and the duty was divided among the different members of the committee, to make the labor less to each individual. To correct the evils of inefficient, irregular, and mere formal visitation, several societies in 1837 and 1838, reduced the number of visitors, and provided a small compensation for their services. The results were so favorable, that the legislature in 1839 provided, that—

Fourthly.—They may appoint a committee of one or two persons, to exercise all the powers, and perform all the duties of the whole board, under their advice and direction, and receive one dollar a day for the time actually employed.

This provision secures the counsel and general coöperation of a large number, selected for their supposed intelligence and interest in the subject, and the more active labor of one or two persons, in the examination of teachers, the visitation of schools, and the preparation of reports and returns respecting their condition and improvement. The compensation provided, in no case for more than two persons, is small, and in some cases is barely sufficient to pay the expenses to and from the distant districts. The duties imposed on the committee are important and numerous, and require the services of a class of men who cannot afford to spend the time demanded, without some slight remuneration—much less incur expense in so doing. A similar compensation is made to the same class of officers in the states of New York and Massachusetts. Where the work of visitation is now faithfully performed, by securing the services of competent persons, the value of the school is more than doubled, by the addition of this small amount for compensation.

Fifthly.—They must prepare, when required by this Board, and annually for their several societies, a written report as to the condition of the schools, and plans and suggestions for their improvement.

This is a new and important feature in the school law. It secures faithfulness on the part of the visitors. It leads to inquiries and reflection on the whole subject of education, both in its general principles and in its practical details, as a necessary preparation for the work. It enables any member of the society to know the condition of the schools out of his own district. It enables every district to profit by the successful experience of every other in the same society. It provides the material for judicious action in reference to future improvement, on the part of committees, districts, societies, and the State.

In the course of the four years, the preparation of the reports and returns must have enlisted the services of at least three thousand individuals, scattered through the several school societies. It would seem impossible, that so many minds, or

even a single mind in each school society, could be directed to an investigation of the actual condition of the schools, and the devising of plans and suggestions for removing defects and extending excellencies, without giving an impulse of the most salutary kind to the cause of common school improvement.

8. School societies are now authorized to distribute the public money in such a manner as to aid the small districts by giving to each at least fifty dollars, and to induce every district to secure the full and regular attendance of all the children, by making their receipts depend on the aggregate attendance for the year.

These provisions, when their beneficent character is understood, will go far to diminish the striking irregularities in the means of education enjoyed by children in different districts, and to remove one of the most serious evils under which the schools now suffer.

9. No child can now be excluded from any school on account of the inability of his or her parent or guardian, or master, to pay any school tax or assessment, and all abatements of such taxes, must be paid out of the treasury of the town.

This provision re-asserts the cardinal principle of the common school system, and places the expenses for the education of the indigent, beyond what the State provides for them in common with others, on the whole community, as a matter of common interest and of common duty.

10. The progress of the school system, as well as of the schools, is secured.

This will be accomplished, 1, through the labors and reports of the school visitors; 2, by collecting the results of their labors and reports for the use of the Board and the legislature; 3, by disseminating the information thus collected from every society, and respecting every school, back again in the reports of the Board, and by the labors of this office. A valuable suggestion from any society becomes the property of the whole State. The exposure of an evil in any one school, will lead to its correction in all, and a single worthy practice becomes an example for all the rest. The good thus accomplished may not, and cannot, be seen in immediate or brilliant results, but information thus disseminated, like the light and the rain, will penetrate every dark and thirsty crevice, till a more vigorous life shall pervade the entire school system.

Without claiming for the labors and reports of this department any other merit than that of fidelity, minuteness, and general accuracy, it appears, that to them, the Legislature and the people are indebted for much important information respecting the condition of the common schools of our own State, and the school systems and methods of instruction in other states and countries; and that in consequence of this information, and the means which have been employed, to awaken attention and interest in the whole subject, serious defects in the administration and organization of our school system, and the classification, instruction, and government of the schools, have been exposed, discussed, and in part corrected.

So far as these defects resulted from the want of power in school districts, or the specific enumeration of the duties of school officers, or a system of accountability on the part of all intrusted with its administration, they have been remedied in a careful revision of the school law. So far as they grew out of a want of interest, information, or liberality on the part of parents, committees, and districts, they are disappearing before a more just appreciation of the nature, means, and end of education. So far as they depend on the character of the teacher, and his or her knowledge of wise methods of instruction and government, they will be remedied as the means are improved for giving the greatest practical elevation and efficiency to the profession of common school teacher. The full effects of the measures of the Board, if persevered in, cannot be seen, until at least one generation of children have grown up under the influences of a more enlightened, liberal, and vigorous public opinion in relation to this whole subject, which must be at once the cause and effect of an improved state of the schools.

Among the visible and immediate results, not of compulsory legislation, but of the voluntary efforts of parents, committees, and districts, acting on the information and impulse given directly and indirectly by the measures of the Board, the following may be specified.

The attendance at society and district school meetings is more numerous.

More than fifty new school-houses have been built, and a much greater number repaired after approved models, and more has been done in this respect within four years, than for twenty years before.

School visitors are more strict in their examination of teachers, and regular and vigilant in visiting the schools as required by law.

A uniform set of books in all the schools of a society has been in some instances prescribed, and in others recommended, by the proper committee.

The evils of crowding children of different ages in a great variety of studies, and in different stages of progress in the same study, under one teacher, has been obviated in more than one hundred districts, by employing a female teacher for the younger children and primary studies, and a male teacher for the older and more advanced scholars—and in a few instances, by the establishment of a central or union school for the older children of a society, or of two or more districts.

Facilities have been provided for such as wished to qualify themselves to become teachers, or improve their previous qualifications by an appropriate course of study, by a practical acquaintance with the duties of the school-room, by access to good books on the principles and art of teaching, and by associations for mutual improvement.

Good teachers are employed for a longer period in the same school, and at higher wages; the average length of schools, and wages of teachers, are increased; the superiority of females as the educators of young children, is acknowledged, by their more general employment, and for a longer time.

More attention is now given to young children, and to the indispensable branches of spelling, reading, writing, and arithmetic, and more use is made of visible illustrations.

Wherever the common schools have been improved, the number attending them has increased, and the attendance and expense of private schools has diminished; and thus the advantages of a good education have been made common to rich and poor. And as at once the evidence of past, and the pledge of future improvements, parents, and men of education and influence generally, are found more frequently visiting schools, discharging with zeal the duties of school committees, conversing and reading on the subject, and acquainting themselves with the efforts which are making in this and other countries to give a more thorough and complete education to every human being.

We have set forth at much length and in detail, the operations of the Board and their Secretary from 1838 to 1842, not only because the facts elicited justify the action of the Legislature in instituting patient and searching inquiries into the actual condition of popular education, but because the measures originated and carried out by their Secretary to awaken, enlighten, and guide public opinion on the subject, although for a time repudiated, here are now universally received by the soundest practical educators in every state as among the most efficient agencies and means of school improvement. But they did not at that time find favor with Governor Cleveland, nor with the Joint Standing Committee on Education or the Legislature of 1842, and Mr. Barnard had the mortification to see the labors of four of the best years of his life—labors as has been said, “characterized by great sobriety of thought, patient application to details, and the highest practical wisdom, as well as by the enthusiasm of a generous heart”—ruthlessly swept from the statute book.

We might cite extracts from a large number of educational periodicals, addresses, and reports, to show the estimation in which the backward movement of Connecticut, in 1842, was regarded in other States. The following is from an oration pronounced before

the authorities of the city of Boston, on the 4th of July, 1842, by Hon. Horace Mann :—

"Four years ago, a new system was established in Connecticut, which was most efficiently and beneficially administered, under the auspices of one of the ablest and best of men; but it is with unspeakable regret I am compelled to add, that, within the last month, all her measures for improvement have been swept from the statute-book."

The same gentleman, in the Massachusetts Common School Journal for 1846, after commenting on the progress of education in Rhode Island, Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, and Massachusetts, thus speaks of Connecticut :—

"One only of the New England States proves recreant to duty in this glorious cause,—the State of Connecticut! Favored for half a century, in the munificence of her endowments, beyond any of her New England sisters, she is the only one which, for the last few years, has not merely been stationary, but has absolutely retrograded; and now, if she promises to be useful at all, it is as a warning and not as an example. A common ancestry, an identity of general interests and pursuits, a similar position in regard to the other States of the Union, and a similar duty to furnish them with high example and encouragement, had led us all to expect that we should have, not only the sympathy, but the active coöperation, of Connecticut, in this common cause. We not only expect it, we *believed* it. Events seemed auspicious. The year after the Massachusetts Board of Education was established, an organization almost identical in its form, and entirely so in its object, was created in Connecticut. For carrying out its measures of reform and improvement, an agent was selected,—Henry Barnard, Esquire,—of whom it is not extravagant to say that, if a better man be required, we must wait, at least, until the next generation, for a better one is not to be found in the present. This agent entered upon his duties with unbounded zeal. He devoted to their discharge his time, talents, and means. The cold torpidity of the State soon felt the sensations of returning vitality. Its half-suspended animation began to quicken with a warmer life. Much and most valuable information was diffused. Many parents began to appreciate more adequately what it is to be a parent. Teachers were awakened. Associations for mutual improvement were formed. System began to supersede confusion. Some salutary laws were enacted. All things gave favorable augury of a prosperous career. And it may be further affirmed, that the cause was so administered as to give occasion of offence to no one. The whole movement was kept aloof from political strife. All religious men had reason to rejoice that a higher tone of moral and religious feeling was making its way into the schools, without giving occasion of jealousy to the one-sided views of any denomination. But all these auguries of good were delusive. In an evil hour the whole fabric was overthrown. The Educational Board was abolished. Of course, the office of its devoted and faithful Secretary fell with it. As if this were not enough, the remedial laws which had been enacted during the brief existence of the Board, and which might have continued and diffused their benefits without the Board, were spitefully repealed.*

"The whole educational movement in Connecticut, or rather, the body in which the vital movement had begun, was paralyzed by this stroke. Once or twice, since, it has attempted to rise, but has fallen back prostrate as before."

These views of the labors of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools and of the legislation of 1842, by which they were suspended, were not confined to educators out of the State. The Rev. Dr. Bushnell, of Hartford, in a lecture before the Young Men's Institute, in 1843, "*on the education of the Working Classes,*"

* "We have been credibly informed that the Chairman of the Committee on Education, in the Connecticut House of Representatives, who reported the bill for abolishing the Board, not being able to draw up a decent report himself, paid an involuntary homage to the cause of learning, which he was about to stab, by employing another to draft a report for him.

spoke strongly in regret of the unwise legislation of 1842, by which the efforts then making, under authority of law and the auspices of the Board, for the improvement of Common Schools—the schools in which the children of the working classes must be educated, if educated at all—were arrested. This portion of his lecture having been made the subject of comment by one of the papers of Hartford, Dr. Bushnell addressed a letter in reply, from which the following extract is taken.

"My remarks in the lecture had reference to nothing but the removal of Mr. Barnard, an act by which great injustice was done to him, and a greater injury to the State. I spoke plainly, but I think not harshly. Mr. B., at my instance in part, had withheld himself from a lucrative profession, and renounced the hope of a politician—a calling for which, you may suppose, he had conceived a degree of disrelish; he had given himself to the most indefatigable industry, that he might qualify himself for his undertaking, and had just begun to bring to view those results which it most require at least twenty years' industry fully to mature. No public officer, that I have ever known in the State, has done so much of labor and drudgery to prepare his field, expending at the same time *more* than he received, and seeking his reward in the beneficent results, by which he was ever expecting to honor himself and the State. He did not suffer as a politician. That he had ceased to be. The reasons of his removal I could never understand or imagine; but I have always suspected that your friends must have acted under some misunderstanding of his objects, identifying him in some way with partizan schemes, which I know were wholly remote from his mind; which also his course, since that time has fully proved. They certainly could not have given him credit for that beneficent, that enthusiastic devotion, I may say, to his great object, which it is the unfailing token of an ingenious spirit to conceive, and by which I am sure he was actuated. You have shown your zeal for the public welfare, by appointing a committee to make inspections of the affairs of our banks, and see that the public interests intrusted to them were not misused. Is it less appropriate, when the State itself is expending, every year, for the benefit of schools, money enough to stock a bank, to have some officer in the field, employed to see that the money is wisely and effectually expended?

"A few days since I was traveling with a very intelligent, keen-sighted gentleman, who, I found, was a prominent member of the committee on schools in the Legislature of New York—himself a member of the Democratic party, or rather, as he said, 'one of the barn-burners,'—and he said to me, 'Why is it that your Democratic Legislature has cast out Mr. Barnard? We can not understand it. The effort to extend common schools, and elevate them to the highest possible pitch, we regard as the very essence of democracy. And, as to Mr. B., there is no man whom our committee has consulted on this subject, for the last three years, who gives us so much satisfaction, who is so perfectly master of the subject, and so thoroughly practical in his views, as he. We regard him as decidedly the best and ablest guide on this subject in our whole country.' Here, Sir, is a true democrat,—a man who is actuated by an intelligent love to the people. I heartily wish that our State were filled with barn-burners of this stamp. Such, too, are the sentiments that bear sway in the great State of New York. At first, the great expenses incurred were not popular; but the sober second thought of the people is now taking sides with the movement, and it is becoming the most thoroughly popular of all public measures. I grieve that we have in Connecticut so little of State feeling. No State in the Union has so fine an opportunity as we, with our magnificent School Fund, to put ourselves in the post of honor, as foremost of all, in the excellencies of our schools and the universal education of our people. Can not our politicians of all sides unite, and lend their aid together in a work so essential to the well-being and honor of our State? Can we not draw a circle round this mount, and forbid the game of political or partizan warfare to enter it? Or, if it must enter, let the contest be, who shall do most to honor and bless the coming generations, and make them proud of their birthright, as sons of Connecticut—the mother of the most high-minded, most accomplished, most thoroughly educated people on the globe."

The following simple plan for a voluntary association of all who were disposed to act together for the improvement of common schools, together with a list of the measures which could be adopted for the systematic furtherance of the object, was drawn up by Mr. Barnard, immediately after the abolition of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools. The friends of school improvement were too much discouraged by the action of the Legislature to undertake the plan. It was first published by Prof. Porter, of Yale College, in his "PRIZE ESSAY ON THE NECESSITY AND MEANS OF IMPROVING THE COMMON SCHOOLS OF CONNECTICUT."

ARTICLES OF ASSOCIATION.

ARTICLE 1. This Association shall be styled the CONNECTICUT (*or the name of any Town or County can be inserted*) INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION, and shall have for its object the improvement of common schools, and other means of popular education in this State, (*or Town, or County.*)

ARTICLE 2. Any person residing in this State, (*or Town or County.*) may become a member of the Institute by subscribing this Constitution, and contributing any sum, annually, towards defraying its incidental expenses.

ARTICLE 3. The officers of the Institute shall be a President, two or more Vice Presidents, a Treasurer, a Recording Secretary, and a Corresponding Secretary for each county, (*or town in case of a county association.*) with such powers respectively, as their several designations imply; and who shall, together, constitute an Executive Committee.

ARTICLE 4. The Executive Committee shall carry into effect such measures as the Institute may direct; and perform such other acts not inconsistent with the objects of the association, as they may deem expedient, and make report of their doings, annually, and when called on, at any regular meeting of the Institute.

ARTICLE 5. A meeting of the Association for the choice of officers shall be held, annually, at such time and place as the Executive Committee may designate in a notice published in one or more newspapers; and meetings may be held at such other time and place, as the Executive Committee may appoint.

ARTICLE 6. This constitution may be altered at any annual meeting, by a majority of the members present, and regulations, not inconsistent with its provisions may be adopted at any meeting.

Measures which can be adopted by a voluntary Association to improve Common Schools.

1. Information can be collected and disseminated in every practicable way, in every district, town, and county in the State, as to the present condition of common schools, and other means of popular education, with plans and suggestions by which the excellencies of any one teacher, district, or town, can be improved and made general, and any defects be removed.

2. Meetings of the Association can be held in different towns for public addresses and discussions on topics connected with the condition and improvement of Common Schools.

3. A series of Tracts, each number devoted to some one important topic, relating to the organization and administration of a school system, or to the classification, instruction and discipline of schools, can be prepared and published for gratuitous distribution among teachers, school officers, parents, and every body who has a child to educate, a vote to give, or an influence to exert in relation to public instruction.

4. Editors and conductors of the periodical press can be enlisted to publish original, and selected articles relating to the subject.

5. Clergymen can be interested to present the subject in some of its bearings at appropriate times to their people.

6. Local associations of parents and the friends of education, and especially district and town associations of mothers and females, generally, for the purpose of visiting schools, and co-operating in various ways with teachers, can be formed and assisted.

7. Pecuniary aid and personal co-operation can be extended for the purpose of securing at different points, a school-house, with its appropriate in-door and out-door arrangements, a school library, a district school, and a village lyceum, which can be held up severally, as a *model of its kind*.

8. Good teachers can be assisted in finding districts where their services will be appreciated and rewarded, and district committees in search of good teachers, can be directed to such teachers as have proved on trial that they possess the requisite qualifications.

9. The necessary local arrangements can be made, and the services of experienced teachers secured for the purpose of facilitating the holding, in the spring and autumn, a teachers' class or Institute, where young and inexperienced teachers may spend one or two weeks in reviewing the studies which they are to teach, in the summer or winter schools; and witness, and to some extent, practice, the best methods of classifying, instructing, and governing a school.

10. The formation of town and county associations of teachers, for mutual improvement and the advancement of their profession, by weekly or monthly meetings, and by visiting each others' schools, and learning from each others' experience, can be encouraged.

11. Efforts can be put forth to collect a fund for the establishment, at the earliest moment, of a seminary where young men and young women, who have the desire and the natural tact and talent, can be thoroughly and practically trained for teachers of common schools.

12. A well qualified teacher, of the right tact and character can be employed to perform an itinerating Normal school agency through the schools of a particular town or county.

13. School celebrations or gatherings of all the children of a school society, or town, with their parents and teachers, for addresses and other appropriate exercises, can be held at the close of the winter and summer schools.

14. Village Lyceums can be established and assisted in getting up courses of popular lectures in the winter.

15. A central depository or office, supplied with plans of school-houses, apparatus, and furniture; a circulating library of books and pamphlets on education; specimens of school libraries, and the best text books in the various studies pursued in common schools, &c., can be established.

16. To give the highest efficiency to any or all of these means and agencies of school improvement, an individual should be employed to devote all, or a portion of his time, as agent under the direction of the Executive Committee of the Institute, and receive such compensation as can be raised by a special subscription for this purpose.

Every measure above enumerated, it will be seen in the following pages, was carried out successfully by Mr. Barnard, in his official labors in behalf of the public schools of Rhode Island.

MR. BARNARD'S LABORS IN RHODE ISLAND,

FROM 1842 TO 1849.

Mr. Barnard spent the year following the abolition of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools in Connecticut, in visiting every section of the country to collect the material, in printed documents and personal observations, for a "HISTORY OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, AND THE MEANS OF POPULAR EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES." In the course of the year he had personal interviews with a large number of the active promoters of school improvement in each state; studied the peculiarities of condition, in territory, population, and occupation of each section; addressed, on invitation, the legislatures of several states; assisted in framing several school laws and plans of local school improvements which have since been adopted, and in fine, while he was maturing his own views, and acquiring a fund of information for future use, he was rendering no small service to the advancement of national education. He has always spoken of this tour, occupying over fifteen months, and his interviews with individuals who were laboring in different states and cities to improve the education of the people, while it was the most expensive to himself, as the most profitable to the cause, of any portion of his public career. Hence he has always advocated the employment of some suitable person, by the American Institute and the National Educational Association, in connection with, and in furtherance of their other plans of operation. Just as he was about to commence his History of Public Schools, for which he had made such a costly and thorough preparation, he was invited to go to Rhode Island, and there achieved a work, both for that state, and as a model of practical operations in school improvement, which, if ever fully written out, will form an interesting chapter in the History of Popular Education.

To fully appreciate the difficulties and magnitude of Mr. Barnard's work in Rhode Island, it will be necessary to look more narrowly into the fundamental ideas on which that colony* was settled and its early legislation based, than can be done in this brief and hurried sketch. We may observe, however, that the state of Rhode Island has from the first been a peculiar community. The people who settled Providence held as firmly as their neighbors in Plymouth, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, that religion was the end of human existence, and of human institutions. They denied that this end could be promoted by the interference of the state. They claimed

* This subject is treated of in an article on Mr. Barnard's labors in Rhode Island, in the North American Review for July, 1848.

that the only duty which the state owed to the church was to let it alone, and secure to every man the amplest toleration in respect to his faith and worship. Hence the original compact of the settlers of Providence limits their obedience to the action of the majority "*only in civil things.*" Here was the first assertion of the great principle of religious freedom, and the limitation which this phrase imposed on the civil power, marked the beginning of a new era in the history of man. The principle has since been recognized and incorporated in the Constitution of the United States, and of every individual state. The mistake made by Rhode Island in interpreting the phrase "*only in civil things,*" was in excluding the common school as a religious concern, from the care and patronage of the government, and in not distinguishing between that culture which is required to render a man fit to be a citizen at all, and the imposition of a dogma of religious faith, or a ritual of divine worship. For more than a century and a half this mistake was adhered to, so that during that period there is not the slightest trace of any legislation whatever for this important interest. To compel a citizen to support a school or educate his children, was regarded as a violation of the rights of conscience. So late as 1846, after Mr. Barnard had explained before the legislature, section by section, the new school law, a member from one of the country towns rose in his place, and in reference to the provision requiring each town to raise a certain sum by tax for the support of the public schools, declared, "That provision can not be enforced in the town of C—— at the point of the bayonet." As a public interest or duty, for nearly two hundred years, the common school was entirely neglected. This neglect was partly owing to the views of the leading religious sects, that originally settled Rhode Island, in reference to education, and schools of learning generally. They did not believe in that day in a learned ministry, and now there are communities in that state, where a "college larn't" minister or orator is regarded with jealousy and aversion. The aggressions made at different times by the neighboring colonies on the rights of Rhode Island, and their attempts to absorb her territory, did not conciliate her people to anything that was so peculiar in their institutions as a paid ministry and common schools. An old Rhode Islander, a thrifty citizen, twenty years ago, assigned as a reason for not contributing to support a district school, "It is a Connecticut custom and I don't like it." It must not be supposed that because there were no public schools out of the city of Providence till 1828, that education was universally neglected. There were in every town private schools, and many of them were of high

excellence. The rich provided for the education of their children at home or abroad.

We have referred to the past history of the state, that we may the better understand the peculiar difficulties which Mr. Barnard,—a citizen of another state, and trained in the best learning of her best schools, and holding fast and proclaiming everywhere as the cardinal idea of the American system of public instruction, that “the common schools must be made cheap enough for the poorest, and good enough for the best citizen,”—had to encounter in his labors in Rhode Island, and that his success there shows that he possesses in an eminent degree the essential qualities of a school officer and educator. Such, at least, is the opinion expressed by one of the best judges in that state. Mr. Kingsbury, President of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction says—“Mr. Barnard was peculiarly happy in securing the cordial coöperation of persons of every class who take an interest in education. None rendered him more willing aid than those whose ample fortunes enabled them to sustain every benevolent enterprise. Mr. Barnard, I have reason to believe, never appealed to this class in vain. Gentlemanly in his address, conciliatory in his measures, remarkably active and earnest, he combines more essential elements of character for a superintendent of education than any other individual with whom it has been my fortune to be acquainted. Under his administration common schools advanced rapidly; and had it been his pleasure to have become a resident in this state, and to have retained the office of commissioner of schools, up to the present time, Rhode Island might have been as conspicuous in her educational interests, as she is diminutive in size.” President Wayland, in his address before the American Institute of Instruction, in August last, speaking of the gradation of schools and the improvement in school-houses within the last quarter of a century, adds—“This change, it is proper to remark, is to be ascribed more to the labors of the Hon. Henry Barnard, LL. D., Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut, than to any other cause. This gentleman has devoted his remarkable abilities for many years to the improvement of common school education. The results of his labors may be discovered in almost every town in Connecticut and Rhode Island.”

To return to our sketch of Mr. Barnard's labors in Rhode Island. In September, 1843, he had just completed at great cost, his preliminary inquiries and researches for a History of Popular Education in the United States, when he was invited by Hon. Wilkins Updike, of Kingston, R. I., a member of the Legislature, to visit him, and assist in devising some plan for the more efficient organization of the public

schools of that state. Mr. Updike was of an old Rhode Island family, well acquainted with the peculiar temper of the people, and their aversion to governmental interference in the affairs of the towns and individuals, but convinced of the necessity of a radical change in the opinions and legislation of the state on the subject of common schools. Mr. Barnard was adverse to any law which could not be sustained by public opinion, and all his plans of operation were based on the cardinal idea of quickening, enlightening, and directing aright the popular intelligence, as the source of all wise legislation and local action on the subject of schools, and the securing of all advance in popular intelligence and feeling, by judicious, legal enactments—as public sentiment and voluntary efforts will not long remain in advance of the law. A bill for a public act in two sections was drawn up, providing for the appointment of an Agent or Commissioner, “to collect and dispense as widely as possible among the people, a knowledge of the most successful methods of arranging the studies and conducting the education of the young, to the end that the children of the state who should depend on common schools, may have the best education that these schools may be made to impart.” The bill was introduced into the House by Mr. Updike, with appropriate remarks. On his motion, the Legislature adjourned to an evening session to hear an address by Mr. Barnard, “*On the conditions of a successful system of public schools*,” and the next day the bill was passed into a law by the unanimous vote of both branches of the General Assembly, and by general consent Mr. Barnard was invited to test the practicability of his own plans of educational reform and improvement, on a new field. “Better to make History than to write it,” was the reply of Governor Fenner to his declining the appointment on the ground of his having undertaken the work already alluded to. The appointment was accepted, and in a few weeks he entered on his labors and organized a system of agencies which in four years, wrought not a change, but a revolution in the public opinion and the educational system of the state—a revolution which is without a parallel, so far as we know, in the history of popular education, for thoroughness, completeness, and permanence. We can only glance at a few of the particulars—enough to show that his plan of operations was substantially the same as that pursued in Connecticut, and for anything that we can see, his labors in that state would have been sooner followed by the same lasting and beneficent results, if he had not been thwarted by narrow prejudices which resisted all efforts at enlightenment, and by the baleful spirit of party. It should be mentioned to the credit of Rhode Island, that during his labors in that state, not a single

article appeared in the public press calculated to impede the progress of school improvement, to injure the feelings of those who were laboring in this field, or to mingle up the question of public schools and general education, with the topics of angry, political, sectarian, and personal controversy, by which every community is liable to be excited and embittered. We shall draw our statements from an article in the *North American Review* for July, 1848, on the Common Schools of Rhode Island, and from an Address of Mr. Barnard before the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction on resigning his office of School Commissioner.

1. His first and most important duties were, to ascertain, by personal examination and authentic report, the actual condition of the schools of the state, and to arouse the interest of the people themselves in a thorough and entire reformation. But these duties involved the most laborious effort, and of a peculiarly trying character. To convince men of all classes of prejudices and opinions, that their institutions of learning are greatly deficient, implies, of course, that they themselves have hitherto been ignorant, and contented that their children should remain so; and to argue with the ignorant concerning the advantages of education is always most discouraging. Especially is it most discouraging, when the practical conclusion of all that you say, is to lead them to raise money for an object of which they do not confess the value. On this point Mr. Barnard observes:

"Much has been attempted to prepare the way for a broad, thorough and liberal system of public instruction, by interesting all who could be reached by the living voice or the printed page, in the nature and means of education, the condition and wants of the schools, and the best modes of introducing desirable improvements. More than eleven hundred meetings have been held expressly to discuss topics connected with the public schools, at which more than fifteen hundred addresses have been delivered. One hundred and fifty of these meetings have continued through the day and evening; upward of one hundred, through two evenings and a day; fifty, through two days and three evenings; and twelve, including the Teachers' Institutes, through an entire week. In addition to this class of meetings and addresses, upward of two hundred meetings of teachers and parents have been held for lectures and discussions on improved methods of teaching the studies ordinarily pursued in public schools, and for exhibitions or public examinations of schools, or of a class of pupils in certain studies, such as arithmetic, reading, &c. These meetings have proved highly useful. Besides these various meetings, experienced teachers have been employed to visit particular towns and sections of the State, and converse freely with parents by the wayside and the fireside, on the condition and improvement of the district school. By these various agencies it is believed that a public meeting has been held within three miles of every home in Rhode Island.

To the interest awakened by these addresses, and by the sympathy of numbers awayed by the same voice, and by the same ideas, must be added the more permanent and thoughtful interest cultivated by the reading of books, pamphlets, and tracts on the same topics at home. More than sixteen thousand pamphlets and tracts, each containing at least sixteen pages of educational matter, have been distributed gratuitously through the State; and in one year, not an Almanac was sold in Rhode Island without at least sixteen pages of educational reading attached. This statement does not include the official documents published by the State, nor

the Journal of the Institute, nor upward of twelve hundred bound volumes on schools and school systems, and the theory and practice of teaching, which have been purchased by teachers, or which have been added to public or private libraries within the last four years. In addition to the printed information thus disseminated, the columns of the different newspapers published in the State, have always been open to original and selected articles on education, and to notices of the proceedings of school meetings.

The result of this preparation for practical legislation and popular action in the several towns and districts, may be summed up as follows :

1. An inefficient school system has been abolished, and a system has been established, having within itself capacities of adaptation to large and small districts, and to towns of widely different circumstances, as to the number, occupation, and wealth of their inhabitants, and which provides within itself for the establishment, support, and supervision of schools of different grades, and for the cheap and speedy adjustment of all difficulties that may arise in its administration.

After the condition of the public schools, and the working of the old school law was ascertained by personal observation, and by communications from school officers in every town in the State, a bill was framed by request of the General Assembly in the winter of 1844, in which all that worked well in the existing law was retained, and only such modifications and additions as experience pointed out were introduced. The bill was reported in May, and referred to a committee of the House, before whom it was explained, section by section and paragraph by paragraph. After some modifications, the bill was reported to the House, and printed; and its discussion postponed till June. In June, its consideration was taken up, its several provisions explained by the author of the bill, before the two Houses in convention, all questions answered, and after debate, it received the almost unanimous sanction of the House. In the Senate, its consideration was postponed until the people could have an opportunity to examine and pronounce upon it,—measures having been taken to print the bill as passed by the House, with the remarks made by the School Commissioner in explanation of its provisions, and circulated amongst school officers of the several towns. With a new legislature, this bill was taken up in the Senate in June, 1845, a familiar exposition of its provisions made by him (Mr. Barnard,) before that body, the difficulties suggested by school committees were explained, a few modifications introduced, and then passed by a large majority. The House adopted the action of the Senate, postponing the operation of the law until the October session following, that there might still be opportunity for the people to examine the Act, and for the legislature to modify its provisions. The law went into operation on the first of November, 1845. No effort was spared by this department, through circulars, public addresses, and conversations with school officers, to make the transition from the old to the new system, as easy as possible, and to introduce a uniform and efficient administration throughout the State. To this end, a convention of County Inspectors, Town Committees, and District Trustees, including the most experienced school officers and teachers of Rhode Island, after nine months' practical acquaintance with the new system, was held in Providence, at which every difficulty of construction was presented and discussed, forms of proceedings from the first organization of a school district to the laying and collecting of a tax, specimens of school registers, district and town school returns, regulations to be adopted by school committees as to attendance, classification of scholars, gradation of schools, books, examination of teachers and supervision of schools, were brought forward and considered. The results of this convention, and of further reflection on the subject, were embodied in a pamphlet edition of the school laws, and distributed to every school officer.

2. Something has been done under the new law to furnish the public schools with spacious, attractive, and convenient school-houses. The attention of parents and school officers was early, earnestly, and perseveringly called to the almost necessary connection between a good school-house and a good school, and to the immense injury done to the comfort and health of children by the too common neglect of ventilation, temperature and furniture of school-rooms. The subject was

introduced into every public address, as a preliminary step in the work of educational improvement. Six thousand pamphlets containing a variety of plans of school-houses, for large and small districts, and for schools of different grades, were scattered over the State. Plans and details of construction were gratuitously furnished to builders and committees. Efforts were made to get up at least one model house in each county, in which the true principles of school architecture should be carried out, and could be seen. Men of wealth and intelligence, in the large districts, were seen and interested in the erection of new and commodious structures—which should be ornamental to the village, and attractive and comfortable to the children. School committees were instructed to withhold the public money from districts whose houses should be considered by them as not *school-worthy*.

The results have more than justified the practicability of these and other efforts—a complete renovation, nay, a revolution, having passed over the school-houses of Rhode Island. Old, dilapidated, repulsive, inconvenient houses have given place to new, neat, attractive, and commodious structures in a majority of the districts. Liberal appropriations have been freely voted, and men of business and taste have accepted the supervision of the expenditure. Rhode Island can now boast of more good school-houses and fewer poor ones, in proportion to the whole number, than any other State.

3. Something has been accomplished in augmenting the amount of school attendance, and especially among young children of both sexes, and girls of over twelve years of age. More children attend school—commencing earlier in life and continuing later, and for a longer period in each year. The statistics on this point for the State can not be given accurately—but it can be stated generally, that whenever a good school-house has been built, a good teacher employed, and public and parental interest has been awakened by addresses and other ways, the attendance has been increased, at least, fifty per cent., and the term prolonged, at least, two months in the year.

4. Something has been done to make the school attendance of children more profitable, by establishing a gradation of schools in the large districts. Upward of one hundred primary schools, under female teachers, have been opened, for the first time, in village districts, for the young children, and in several instances, a high school, in addition to primary and intermediate, has been established.

5. The course of instruction generally, in the State, is more thorough, practical, and complete. The elementary studies are more attended to,—music, linear drawing, composition, and mathematics as applied to practical life, have been introduced into many schools; and all of the studies, in a majority of the schools, are taught after better methods, in better books, and in many schools, with the advantage of the blackboard, globes, outline maps, and other means of illustration. There is not a new school-house, and hardly a school-house of any kind, in the State, which is not supplied with a blackboard. One-third of the districts, or the teachers, have a terrestrial globe and a set of outline maps.

6. Something has been done to secure a uniformity of text books in all the schools of the same towns. In twenty-two towns, the committee have adopted a uniform set of text-books, and in eighteen of these, measures have been adopted, in cooperation with this department, by which these books have been introduced at reduced prices.

7. Something has been done to secure the more extensive and permanent employment of well-qualified teachers, and to put in operation agencies by which the methods of instruction and discipline in all of the schools have been, and will continue to be improved. The provision of the law requiring teachers to be examined, has led to the rejection, in one year, of one hundred and twenty-five applicants—applicants who would quietly have been employed by the districts, and who would have taught in the same old mechanical way as before, but for this provision. The itinerant agency of Mr. W. S. Baker—his familiar, practical lectures; his conversations with teachers, parents, and pupils; his exhibition of improved methods, by classes of pupils at public meetings; and the methods adopted in his own school-room, have done an untold amount of good in leading teachers to their own improvement, and inducing parents and trustees to employ only well qualified teachers. The Teachers' Institutes which have been held in the autumn of each year, for three years past, have helped to train the public to

the appreciation of good teachers, and at the same time to elevate the standard and quicken the spirit of improvement among teachers themselves. The same thing has been done by the meeting of all the teachers of the same and the adjoining towns, for the consideration of topics connected with the classification, instruction, and discipline of schools. The reading of good books on the theory and practice of teaching, more than thirty volumes of which have been brought within the reach of every instructor, and the habit of visiting each other's schools, and especially such schools as have an established reputation, have helped to improve a large number of teachers. Whenever applied to, he (Mr. Barnard) had assisted districts that were disposed to pay adequate wages, in procuring good teachers; and good teachers, in obtaining desirable situations. No better service can be rendered the cause of school improvement in any town, than by introducing into it a good teacher of high moral and literary qualifications. The employment of a large number of female teachers, not only in the primary, but in the district school, in the winter as well as in the summer, has improved the discipline, the moral influence, and the manners of our public schools.

8. The public schools of a majority of the towns have been brought for the first time, under a general system of regulations, and have been subjected to an intelligent, energetic, and vigilant supervision. Men of prompt business habits, large views of education, and a generous public spirit, have consented to act on the school committee. Committees have studied the improvements of the day, and labored to introduce them into the schools.

9. The annual appropriation for the support of public schools, exclusive of large sums voted for the repairs and building of school-houses, has been increased in two-thirds of the towns, since 1844; and in 1847, the aggregate amount raised by tax in the State for the compensation of teachers alone, was nearly double the amount paid out of the General Treasury for the same purpose. In 1846, for the first time in two hundred years, every town in Rhode Island voted and collected a school tax—and it can not yet be ascertained that any town has been made poorer by its appropriation, while it is certain that in every town where the appropriation has been wisely expended, (as it might have been in every town,) better teachers have been employed, and the length of the school term has been prolonged—thus converting a portion of the material wealth of the town into intelligence and virtue, which will hereafter diffuse happiness, create wealth, and preserve it from waste.

10. A beginning has been made in the establishment of town, village, and district libraries, and in arranging courses of popular lectures on subjects of science, art, literature, and practical life.

Before Mr. Barnard left the State, a library of at least five hundred volumes had been secured for at least twenty-nine out of the thirty-two towns; and, there were good reasons to believe that the work, so auspiciously begun, would not be suspended until every town and every large village should be supplied with a library of good books, to carry the blessings and advantages of knowledge to every workshop and every fireside.

Seventeen courses of popular lectures have been established in as many villages, which have already awakened a spirit for reading, disseminating much useful information on subjects of practical importance, suggested topics, and improved the whole tone of conversation, and brought people of widely differing sentiments and habits to a common source of enjoyment.

11. As at once the source of most of the improvements which have thus far been made, and as the pledge of a still greater advance in future, there has been awakened a good degree of parental and public interest on the subject of schools and education. The profound apathy, which hung like a dead man's shroud on the public heart, has disappeared, and parents are beginning to coöperate with school officers and teachers in carrying out the purposes of the law; and, the school interest is fast becoming a prominent interest in the State. Let it once become such,—let men read, think, talk, and act about it, as they do about mak-

ing money, or carrying a political election, or propagating a creed, and Rhode Island will become the model State of the Union. And, why should she not? No other State possesses such facilities. Her territory is small, and every advance in one town or district can easily be known, seen, and felt in every other. Her wealth is abundant,—more abundant, and more equally distributed, than in any other State. Her population is concentrated in villages, which will admit of the establishment of public schools of the highest grades. The occupations of the people are diverse, and this is at once an element of power and safety. Commerce will give expansion; manufactures, and the mechanical arts, will give activity, power, invention, and skill; and agriculture, the prudence and conservatism which should belong to the intellectual character and habits of a people. Rhode Island has a large city, to which the entire population of the State is brought by business or pleasure every year, and which should impart a higher tone of manners, intelligence, and business, than can exist in a state without a capital: and, fortunately, Providence has set a noble example to the rest of the State, in her educational institutions,—in the provision of her citizens for schools, libraries, and institutions of religion and benevolence. Rhode Island, too, has a history,—her own peculiar history, and her great names,—the names of Williams, and Clark, of Green, and Perry, of Brown and Slater, are a rich inheritance, and make her sons and daughters, who remove into other States, proud of their parental home.

Although satisfied that a good beginning had been made in the organization of a system of public instruction, and in the improved school habits of the people, Mr. Barnard did not deceive himself or the Legislature, with the impression that nothing more was to be done. On the other hand, no voice was more earnest than his in demanding renewed and continued efforts.

But, let no Rhode Islander forget the immense fund of talent which has slumbered in unconsciousness, or been only half developed, in the country towns of this State, by reason of the defective provision for general education. Let the past four years be the first years of a new era,—an era in which education, universal education, the complete and thorough education of every child born or living in the State,—shall be realized. Let the problem be solved,—how much waste by vice and crime can be prevented, how much the productive power of the State can be augmented, how far happy homes can be multiplied by the right cultivation of the moral nature, and the proportionate development of the intellectual faculties of every child; how much more, and how much better, the hand can work when directed by an intelligent mind; how inventions for abridging labor can be multiplied by cultivated and active thought; in fine, how a State of one hundred and fifty thousand people can be made equal to a State of ten times that number,—can be made truly an Empire State, ruling by the supremacy of mind, and the moral sentiments. All this can be accomplished by filling the State with educated mothers, well qualified teachers, and good books, and bringing these mighty agencies to bear directly, and under the most favorable circumstances, upon every child and every adult.

As fellow-laborers in a common field, he would say to all, teachers, school officers, and citizens, persevere in the measures which have thus far been adopted, and adopt others more efficient. Act directly, and, by all available means, on the public mind; quicken, enlighten, and direct aright the popular intelligence, as the source of all practical legislation, and judicious action on the subject of schools. Secure every advance in popular intelligence and feeling by judicious legal enactment,—for public sentiment and action will not long remain in advance of the law. See to it, that the children of the State, and especially those who live in the lanes and alleys of your city, or labor in your mills and shops, are gathered regularly, during their school years, into good schools. Establish institutions of industry, and reformation, for vagrant children, and juvenile criminals. Educate well, if you can educate only one sex, the female children, so that every home shall have an educated mother. Bring the mighty stimulus of the living voice, and well-matured thought on great moral, scientific, literary, and practical topics, to bear on the whole community, so far as it can be gathered together to listen to popular

lectures. Introduce into every town, and every family, the great and the good of all past time, of this and other countries, by means of public libraries of well-selected books. And, above all, provide for the professional training, the permanent employment and reasonable compensation of teachers, and, especially, of female teachers, for upon their agency in popular education must we rely for a higher style of manners, morals, and intellectual culture.

It was a sore trial for Mr. Barnard to resign before he had fully consummated his plans and agencies for the improvement of public education in Rhode Island;—efficient regulations to secure the punctual and regular attendance of all children of a suitable age, in some school, public or private;—a library of books of reference for the teacher and older scholars in every school, and of circulation in every village;—a course of popular lectures adapted to the condition of education and employment of each section of the State, as supplementary to the instruction of the schools;—a public high school in every town, for girls as well as boys, with a course of study preparatory, on the one hand, for admission to college, and, on the other, to the pursuit of navigation, agriculture, manufactures, or the mechanic arts;—State scholarships, to entitle deserving young men from any town, to the privileges of a literary or scientific course in the university, or in county seminaries, to be established for this purpose;—a series of educational and charitable associations to be aided by the State to meet special wants, viz.: an orphan agency, to seek out the right sort of families, in which to place fatherless and motherless children, for a good industrial and domestic training;—a school of industry for truant, idle, and neglected children before they have become tainted or convicted of crime;—a reform school for young criminals, distributed in small rural colonies, or families, where they can be subjected to restraint and supervision, and, at the same time, to the humanizing influences of domestic life; a house of refuge for adult criminals to pass a period of severe but voluntary probation, and support themselves for a time, until they could again enter society with confirmed habits of temperance, industry, and self-control, and by a reasonable hope of escaping or withstanding the temptations by which they originally fell;—and, training institutions, or classes of special study and practice, not only for teachers of public schools, but for conductors of the several special schools above enumerated. Mr. Barnard, however, was not permitted to prosecute his undertaking any further. He had succeeded in supplanting an inefficient and imperfect system of public schools by one which possessed great capabilities of adaptation to the differing circumstances of city and country, and had gathered about its administration, public confidence. The state of his health precluded his discharging any longer, satisfactorily to himself, the labors he had before performed. He was urged on every hand to diminish the

sphere of his activity, and still retain the general direction of the educational movement, so happily begun under his auspices. But, with a feverish anxiety to work out to the full circumference of his duty in any official position, he knew there would be no rest to body or mind until he was out of office, and he therefore tendered his resignation. He did not write out his final report, as he had contemplated doing, but was invited by the Legislature to make an oral communication to the two Houses in Joint Convention, on the condition and improvement of the public schools. His address on this occasion is characterized by the Providence Journal "as most eloquent and impressive, and was listened to, for nearly two hours, with almost breathless attention." The following resolution was adopted by the unanimous vote of the Senate and House of Representatives, and the Governor was instructed to communicate the same to Mr. Barnard:—

Resolved, unanimously, that the thanks of this General Assembly be given to the Hon. Henry Barnard, for the able, faithful, and judicious manner in which he has, for the last five years, fulfilled the duties of Commissioner of Public Schools in the State of Rhode Island.

"There are few spectacles," says a writer in the North American Review, on the recent school movement in Rhode Island, "more worthy to excite an ardent yet rational enthusiasm, than the movement of a commonwealth, in a united purpose, and with resolute will, toward the accomplishment of any important end touching the moral or intellectual welfare of its citizens. When the value of the object is perceived by the mass of the people, and accepted by them as an interest for which they care and are ready to labor, our hopes for the progress of the race are confirmed and elevated. But, when a people are seen to recognize a great deficiency in the means of education, and, with one mind to take vigorous and rapid measures for its removal, they deserve indeed the highest praise. The efforts of the people of Rhode Island for their schools have been peculiar, in respect to the work which they had to accomplish, to the rapidity of the reform, to the unanimity and zeal with which it has been executed, to the permanent results which have been attained, and to the still higher promise for the future, of which these results give the assurance."

As soon as it was known that Mr. Barnard had determined to retire from the office of School Commissioner, the teachers of the State, through a committee appointed at the several Institutes, held in the autumn of 1849, presented him a silver pitcher, as a testimonial of their respect and friendship, and of their appreciation of his services in the cause of education, and of the interest which he had ever taken

in their professional improvement and individual welfare. The following correspondence took place on the occasion:—

To Hon. Henry Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools.

DEAR SIR:—The teachers assembled at the several Institutes which were held in the State during the past year, on learning your intention of closing your official connection with the schools of Rhode Island, appointed the undersigned a committee to express their regret at your departure, and to present you some token of their appreciation of your services in the cause of education, and of the interest which you have always manifested in their professional improvement and individual welfare.

Of the extent of your labors in preparing the way for the thorough re-organization of our system of public schools, and in encountering successfully the many difficulties incident to the working of a new system, few of us can, probably, be aware.

But, we can speak from personal knowledge of the value of the Teachers' Institutes, which have from time been held by your appointment, and provided (too often, we fear, at your expense) with skillful and experienced instructors and practical lecturers; and, of the many books and pamphlets on education and teaching, which you have scattered broadcast over the State.

We can speak, too, of what the teachers of the State know from daily observation,—many of them from happy experience,—of the great change,—nay, revolution,—which you have wrought in our school architecture; by which, old, dilapidated, and unsightly district school-houses have given way for the many new, attractive, commodious, and healthy edifices which now adorn our hills and valleys.

We have seen, too, and felt the benefits of the more numerous and regular attendance of scholars, of the uniformity of text-books, the more vigilant supervision of school committees, and the more lively and intelligent interest and co-operation of parents in our labors, which have been brought about mainly by your efforts.

The fruits of your labors may also be seen in the courses of popular lectures which are now being held, and in the well-selected town, village, and district libraries, which you have assisted in establishing, and which are already scattering their life-giving influence through our beloved State.

In the consciousness of having been the main instrumentality in effecting these changes, for which the generations yet unborn will bless your memory, you have your own best reward. But, in behalf of the members of the Institutes, we ask you to accept the accompanying gift, as a small token of gratitude for these your labors, of their personal regard and friendship, and of their appreciation of your services in the cause of education in general, and to our profession in particular. We only wish it were more worthy of your acceptance.

Receive it, Sir, with our best wishes for your welfare. May your future course be as honorable to yourself, as the past has been useful to the children and youth of Rhode Island.

And, believe us, Sir, in behalf of the teachers of the State, your sincere and obedient servants,

ROBERT ALLYN, JENKS MOWRY, SOLOMON P. WELLS, FANNY J. BURGE, JANE FIFIELD, SYLVESTER PATTERSON, GEORGE W. DODGE.

PROVIDENCE, January 30, 1849.

PROVIDENCE, January 31, 1849.

To Messrs. Allyn, &c.

I feel deeply impressed by the honor you have done me in your communication of the 30th instant, and by the elegant and valuable present which accompanied the same, in the name of a large number of the teachers of Rhode Island. I shall ever bear in grateful remembrance the numberless acts of personal kindness and willing co-operation in my official labors which I have received from teachers both of public and private schools since my first connection with the cause of education in this State, and I accept this parting testimonial of their friendship, and too partial appreciation of my labors, as Commissioner of Public Schools, with a sense of

obligation greater than I can express. If, during the past five years, anything has been done to increase the facilities for individual and professional improvement enjoyed by teachers, and to raise the social and pecuniary estimation in which their services are held and rewarded; if any advance has been made toward the better organization and administration of a system of public schools, and the more thorough, complete, and practical education of the whole people, these results are the sum total of innumerable contributions, all of them as meritorious, and many of them, I doubt not, more important than my own. Every teacher who has, with or without the help of books, institutes, and sympathizing friends, made his school better than he found it; every school officer who has aimed faithfully to understand and execute all the details in the local administration of the new system; every person who, by his voice, his pen, his vote, his pecuniary aid, or his personal influence, has contributed to the earnest awakening of the Legislature and the people to the importance of this much-neglected public interest, and in favor of liberal and efficient measures of educational reform, has labored with me in a common field of usefulness, and is entitled to whatever of credit may be attached to a successful beginning of the enterprise.

Such is the nature of the ever-extending results of educational labor, that if a successful beginning has been made in any department of this field, no matter how small may be the measure of success, we should feel amply rewarded for our exertions, and, with love, hope, and patience in our hearts, we should hold on and hold out to the end. Whoever else may fail or falter, may every teacher in the State persevere until Rhode Island stands acknowledged before the world the model State, for her wise system of popular education. Then will her workshops be filled with intelligent, inventive, and contented laborers; her cities and villages be crowned with institutions of religion, benevolence, and charity, and every home throughout her borders be made a circle of un fading smiles.

The cause of true education, of the complete education of every human being, without regard to the accidents of birth or fortune, is worthy of the concentration of all our powers, and, if need be, of any sacrifice of time, money, and labor, we may be called upon to make in its behalf. Ever since the Great Teacher condescended to dwell among men, the progress of this cause has been upward and onward, and its final triumph has been longed for, and prayed for, and believed in, by every lover of his race. And, although there is much that is dark and despairing in the past and present condition of society, yet, when we study the nature of education, and the necessity and capabilities of improvement all around us, with the sure word of prophecy in our hands, and with the evidence of what has already been accomplished, the future rises bright and glorious before us; and, on its forehead is the morning star, the herald of a better day than has yet dawned on our world. In this sublime possibility,—nay, in the sure word of God,—let us, in our hours of doubt and despondency, reassure our hope, strengthen our faith, and confirm the unconquerable will. The cause of education can not fail, unless all the laws which have heretofore governed the progress of society shall cease to operate, and Christianity shall prove to be a fable, and liberty a dream. May we all hasten on its final triumph by following the example of the Great Teacher, in doing good according to our means and opportunity; and, may each strive to deserve, at the end of life, the epitaph of one, 'in whose death mankind lost a friend, and no man got rid of an enemy.'

With renewed assurance of my gratitude for the kindness expressed in your communication, and for the honor of this present, and, with my best wishes for the individual welfare of every teacher in the State, I remain

Your friend and obedient servant,

HENRY BARNARD.

Early in 1849, Mr. Barnard returned to Connecticut, and to his old home, "where he had garnered up his heart's best treasures of an earthly sort," and where he had apparently every facility for recovering his health in the occupations of the farm and garden, and the recreating studies of a well-selected library. But he had become too intimately blended with the general educational movement of the

country to be permitted to divert his mind, pen, or voice, to other pursuits. He was constantly urged to attend Teachers' Institutes, and other educational meetings, to assist, by conference or correspondence, in framing school laws and regulations, or devising plans of school-houses, libraries, and courses of study for schools of every grade. In less than three months after he resigned his office in Rhode Island, he was invited to a professorship of History and English Literature in one college, and of the Latin and Greek Languages in another, and to the superintendence of public schools in three different cities. He was about the same time urged by friends of educational improvement to take up his residence in two other states; in one to become a candidate for the office of State Superintendent, and in the other to take the direction of a voluntary association for the improvement of common schools; but, he was constrained to decline them all, so long as there was any prospect of his being useful to the cause in his native State. He had not been an idle spectator of the efforts of such public-spirited teachers and friends of Common Schools, as Camp, Richardson, Norton, Beers, Bunce, and others who might be named, to rescue the cause from the blighting influence of certain political demagogues, and especially of Governor Cleveland's recommendations, in 1842, and the consequent party bias given against all legislative action in its behalf. Gradually their well-directed and persevering efforts succeeded in restoring one after another all the important features stricken out of the law in 1842, and in adding still more efficient agencies of improvement to the system. In furtherance of their efforts, he had aided by his advice and pen, and, soon after his return, in 1849, he had the satisfaction of aiding, by his personal influence, the passage of an act "to establish a State Normal School." To the office of Principal of that school was transferred the duties of State Superintendent, with a view of securing his experience in organizing the one, and discharging the labors of the other. He was with one accord appointed Principal, and his acceptance was hailed with expressions of lively satisfaction by persons and presses that had before opposed and thwarted his measures of educational reform. In accepting the double office, he stipulated that an Associate Principal should be appointed, to whom should be intrusted the immediate and responsible charge of the Normal School, while he devoted his whole time and energies to the improvement of the Common Schools.

On the 4th of June, 1851, Mr. Barnard had the satisfaction of delivering the Dedicatory Address, on the completion of the building provided by the citizens of New Britain for the accommodation of the State Normal School, and the schools of the village as Model Schools,

and Schools of Practice, in the presence of the Board of Trustees, the Governor, and other State officers, members of both Houses of the Legislature, and many invited guests. Many long cherished hopes,—hopes long deferred, but still cherished,—had their fulfillment in the attendance and exercises of that day. In reference to his presence on the occasion, Rev. Dr. Bushnell, in an Address delivered in the same place, in the evening, remarked, “I remember with fresh interest, to-day, how my talented friend, who has most reason of all to rejoice in the festivities of this occasion, consulted with me, as many as thirteen years ago, in regard to his plans of life; raising, in particular, the question whether he should give himself wholly and finally up to the cause of public schools. I knew his motives, the growing distaste he had for political life, in which he was already embarked with prospects of success, and the desire he felt to occupy some field more immediately and simply beneficent. He made his choice; and, now, after encountering years of untoward hindrance here, winning golden opinions, meantime, from every other State in the Republic, and from ministers of education in almost every nation of the old world, by his thoroughly practical understanding of all that pertains to the subject; after raising, also, into vigorous action the school system of another State, and setting it forward in a tide of progress, he returns to the scene of his beginnings, and permits us here to congratulate both him and ourselves in the prospect that his original choice and purpose are finally to be fulfilled. He has our confidence; we are to have his ripe experience; and, the work, now fairly begun, is to go on, I trust, by the common consent of us all, till the schools of our State are placed on a footing of the highest possible energy and perfection.”

The publications of Mr. Barnard, although numerous, and full of the most important practical suggestions, have been prepared in the discharge of official duties, when exhausted by the wearying details of daily correspondence, school visitation, and extempore discussions before district and other public meetings. And yet, the productions of his pen, from year to year, since 1838, have been sought for by school officers and teachers, at home and abroad, with avidity, and his suggestions as to existing defects and desirable improvements have been uniformly regarded with marked respect. His School Architecture, it has been said by an eminent German educator and administrator, “has created a new department in school literature,” and has wrought a revolution in the construction, adornment, and furniture of edifices devoted to educational purposes in this country. Over one hundred and twenty thousand copies of the original essay on the

subject have been circulated, and there is not a state, or city, and hardly a county, which has not followed, to some extent, his suggestions. His treatise on Normal Schools, and Education in Europe, are regarded as indispensable in the educational department of every library. His Plan of a Library, or Encyclopædia of Education contemplates the most thorough and comprehensive survey of the whole field of Systems, Institutions, and Methods that has yet been taken by one mind, or executed by one pen.

We have, in this article, limited ourselves to a sketch of Mr. Barnard's character and services as an educator and school officer, and particularly to his labors in behalf of Common Schools in Connecticut and Rhode Island. He has found time, in these abounding labors, to help forward almost every local enterprise which aimed to advance the literary and educational interests of his native city and State. The Hartford Young Men's Institute, with its annual lectures and its library of 11,000 volumes, of which he was one of the first originators, and the first President, and the Connecticut Historical Society, with its valuable memorials, collections, and library of seven thousand volumes, of which he is now President, owe as much to his public spirit and personal efforts, as to any one individual. He has been elected an honorary member of various Historical, Literary, and Scientific Associations, at home and abroad, and has just been appointed President of the American Association for the Advancement of Education. As an evidence of his reputation for high and varied scholarship, and administrative talent, it may be mentioned that, in 1851, he was appointed to the Presidency of the State University of Indiana, and, about the same time, to the Chancellorship of the University of Michigan; and, that he has repeatedly received overtures to take similar positions in other important literary institutions. That his services to the cause of good letters and education are appreciated, is evident from the fact that, in 1851, he received the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws from the corporation of Yale College, and, in the same year, from Union College, and, in the year following, from Harvard University.

F. C. BROWNELL, HARTFORD, CONN.

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SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE; or, Contributions to the Improvement of School-houses in the United States. By Henry Barnard, Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut. Fifth Edition. 1854.

This volume will be found on examination to contain: I. An exposition, from official documents, of common errors in the location, construction, and furniture of school-houses, as they have been almost universally built, even in States where the subject of education has received the most attention. II. The principles to be observed in structures of this kind. III. Plans of school-houses adapted to schools of every grade, from the Infant School to the Normal School, either recommended by experienced educators, or recently erected. IV. Illustrations of the best styles of seats and desks, and the best mode of warming and ventilation. V. Catalogue of apparatus suitable to each grade of schools. VI. Catalogue of books on education, and books of reference for school libraries. VII. Rules for the care and preservation of school-houses. VIII. Examples of dedicatory exercises. IX. Hints respecting the classification of schools.

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NATIONAL EDUCATION IN EUROPE; being an account of the Organization, Administration, Instruction, and Statistics of Public Schools of different grades in the principal States. By Henry Barnard. New York: C. B. Norton, 71, Chambers-street. 894 pages. Price \$3.

This volume embraces not only the results of Mr. Barnard's observations in schools of different grades, and study of official documents during two visits to Europe, but the substance of the elaborate and valuable reports of Professor Calvin E. Stowe, D. D., to the Legislature of Ohio, in 1837; of President Alexander Dallas Bache, LL. D., to the Trustees of the Girard College of Orphans in Philadelphia, in 1839; of Honorable Horace Mann, LL. D., to the Massachusetts Board of Education in 1846; and of Joseph Kay, Esq., of the University of Oxford in 1850, on the subjects treated of: the nature and variety of which, can be seen in the following Index:

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NORMAL SCHOOLS; and other Institutions, Agencies and Means, designed for the Professional Education of Teachers. By Henry Barnard, Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut. Hartford, 1851.

The above work was first published in 1847, to aid the establishment of a Normal School in Rhode Island, and afterwards circulated largely in Connecticut for the same object. It was enlarged in 1850, and published as one of a series of Essays which the author as the Superintendent of Common Schools, was authorized by the Legislature to prepare for general circulation in Connecticut, to enable the people to appreciate the importance of the State Normal School, which had been established on a temporary basis in 1849. The documents embraced in this treatise are of permanent value.

In addition to an account of the organization and course of instruction in the best Normal Schools in Europe and in this country, it embraces elaborate papers on the nature and advantages of Institutions for the professional training of teachers, by Gallaudet, Carter, Stowe Emerson, Everett, Humphrey, Mann, and others.

LEGAL PROVISION RESPECTING THE EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN FACTORIES AND MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS; with an Appendix on the Influence of Education on the Quality and pecuniary value of labor, and its connection with Insanity and Crime. By Henry Barnard, L. L. D. F. C. Brownell, Hartford. 84 pages.

This pamphlet of 84 pages, was prepared by the author in 1842, to fortify some recommendations contained in his Report as Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, for more thorough legislation to protect the health, morals, and souls of children from the cupidity of employers, and of parents, and at the same time to show how the productive power of the State could be augmented, and the waste of property, health and happiness, might be prevented by such an education as could and should be given in Common or Public Schools. The statistics and legislation on these subjects are of permanent and universal interest.

PRACTICAL ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE. Third edition. By Henry Barnard. Hartford; F. C. Brownell. 1856.

This work is an abridgment by the author, of his large treatise on School Architecture, made originally for a Committee of the American Association for the Advancement of Education, and adopted as the first of the series of Essays prepared for general circulation in the state of Connecticut. An edition of 5000 copies was printed for circulation in Great Britain, at the expense of Vere Foter, Esq., of London.

CONNECTICUT COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL; Vol. I, to Vol. VIII.

The Conn. Common School Journal was edited and published by Mr. Barnard, as Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, from Aug. 1838 to Aug. 1842; and as Superintendent of Common Schools in Conn., from 1850 to 1855. On the 1st of Jan. 1855, its publication was assumed by the State Teachers' Association.

REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS RELATING TO THE COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM OF CONNECTICUT. Hartford: Case, Tiffany & Co.

This Volume is made up of different numbers of the Connecticut Common School Journal, which contain separate documents of permanent value. It makes a large quarto volume of 400 pages, in double columns, and small type. Price \$1.00.

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REPORT ON THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RHODE ISLAND, for 1845,
by Henry Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools. Providence:
C. Burnett, Jr.

Act for ascertaining the condition of the Public Schools, and the better management and improvement of the same.
Circulars of Governor Fenner.

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 1. Organization.
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JOURNAL OF THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION:
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EDUCATIONAL TRACTS. By Henry Barnard. 1842 and 1845-6.

No. 1, Education in the United States. No. 2, Education in its relations to Health, Insanity, Pauperism and Crime. No. 3, School System of Massachusetts. No. 4, School houses. No. 5, Reading. No. 6, Grammar. No. 7, Composition. No. 8, Cooperation of Parents.

The above series of Tracts were prepared in part by Mr. Barnard, and printed by him for gratuitous distribution among parents, teachers, and school officers, as part of his system of disseminating a knowledge of desirable improvements, and awakening an interest in the subject in Rhode Island and Connecticut.

TRIBUTE TO GALLAUDET.—A Discourse in Commemoration of the Life, Character, and Services of the Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet L. L. D., delivered before the citizens of Hartford, January 7th, 1852, with an Appendix. By Henry Barnard, L. L. D. Philadelphia: H. Cowperthwait & Co.

The above Discourse was delivered before the citizens of Hartford, and published at their request. The Appendix contains several productions of Mr. Gallaudet, of permanent value, with a History of Institutions for Deaf-mutes, in different countries, and particularly of the American Asylum at Hartford, by the author of the Discourse.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF EZEKIEL CHEEVER; with notes on the Early Free Schools, and School Books of New England. By Henry Barnard, L. L. D., *Second Edition*: Hartford. F. C. Brownell. 1856.

This sketch of one of the earliest and most eminent classical teachers of New England, was first published in Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, for March, 1856, and was afterwards reprinted with copious extracts from Rev. Dr. Cotton Mather's Sermon on the death of this "faithful, successful, venerable and beloved teacher," a poetical 'Essay' or Eulogy on his memory, and a Latin Epitaph by the same Divine; together with a copy of Mr. Cheever's will. A second edition of the pamphlet has been called for, which will contain an account of the "Trial of Br. Cheever before the Church of New Haven—with his reply in full to the charges"—a very curious document which has come to the knowledge of the author since the first publication of the sketch. As this pamphlet contains a good deal of information respecting the early history of schools in New England, a full synopsis of the topics is here given.

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 First School Law of Massachusetts, 71.

HISTORY AND CONDITION OF COMMON SCHOOLS AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS OF EDUCATION IN CONNECTICUT. By Henry Barnard, LL. D. Second Edition. F. C. Brownell.

The first edition of Barnard's History of Education in Connecticut, was published in 1853, in a Report to the Legislature by the author as Superintendent of Common Schools. As copies of that edition can no longer be procured, the author is preparing a second edition, of which the following is the Table of Contents.

INTRODUCTION. Survey of the principal Agencies which have determined the character of the Education of the people of Connecticut.

I. PRIMARY EDUCATION—or Common Schools from 1636 to 1856.

II. SECONDARY EDUCATION—or Academies, and other incorporated institutions, including the Public High Schools.

III. SUPERIOR EDUCATION—or Institutions empowered to grant the degree of Bachelor and Master of Arts. Yale College. Washington, or Trinity College. Wesleyan University.

IV. SPECIAL AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION, viz.:

1. School of Theology.
2. " Law.
3. " Medicine.
4. " Teaching.
5. " Engineering.
6. " Agriculture.
7. " Commerce—Navigation.
8. " " Mechanic Arts.
9. " for Orphans.
10. " " Deaf Mutes.
11. " " Blind.
12. " " Idiots.
13. " " Criminals.
14. Retreat for the Insane.

V. SUPPLEMENTARY EDUCATION.

1. Libraries.
2. Young Men's Associations, Institutes, and Societies for Debate
3. Lectures.
4. Newspapers and Periodicals.

VI. SOCIETIES FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT AND ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE, THE ARTS, AND EDUCATION.

1. Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences
2. Connecticut Historical Society.
3. State Agricultural Society.
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IX. PLAN OF CENTRAL AGENCY

FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

The following Plan for "the Increase and Diffusion of Knowledge" of Education, and especially of Popular Education, and plans for its improvement through the Smithsonian Institution; or the American Association for the Advancement of Education was submitted to the Association by Hon. Henry Barnard.

The Institution [or Association] to appoint a secretary or agent; with a salary, and to furnish a room for an office and depository of educational documents and apparatus, and beyond this not to be liable for any expense.

Agenda by the secretary or agent:

1. To devote himself exclusively to the "increase and diffusion of knowledge" on the subject of education, and especially of the condition and means of improving Popular Education, and particularly
2. To answer all personal or written inquiries on the subject, and collect and make available for use, information as to all advances made in the theory and practice of education in any one State or country.
3. To attend, as far as may be consistent with other requisitions on his time, and without charge to the funds of the institution, [or Association] Educational Conventions of a national and State character, for the purpose of collecting and disseminating information.
4. To edit a publication, to be entitled the American Journal and Library of Education, on the plan set forth in the accompanying paper (A.)
5. To collect
 - (a) Plans and models of school-houses and furniture.
 - (b) Specimens of maps and other material aids of education.
 - (c) Educational reports and documents from other States and countries.
6. To institute a system of educational exchange between literary institutions in this and other countries.
7. To make arrangements, and effect, if practicable, at least one meeting or conference of the friends of educational improvement in Washington [or elsewhere] every year.
8. To submit annually a report in which shall be given a summary of the progress of education, in each State, and as far as practicable, in every country

A.

PLAN OF PUBLICATION.—A quarterly or monthly issue under the general title of the AMERICAN JOURNAL AND LIBRARY OF EDUCATION.

- I. A JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, to be issued in quarterly or monthly numbers, embracing articles on systems, institutions and methods of education, and the current intelligence of literature and education, and to make an octavo volume annually of at least 600 pages.
- II. A LIBRARY OF EDUCATION; to consist of a series of independent treatises on the following [among other] subjects, to be issued in parts, and to be forwarded with the Journal to subscribers; the several parts or treatises to make an octavo volume of at least 600 pages per year.

1. A CATALOGUE of the best publications on the organization, instruction and discipline of schools, of every grade, and on the principles of education, in the English, French, and German languages.
2. A HISTORY OF EDUCATION, ancient and modern.
3. AN ACCOUNT OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION IN EUROPE, based on the reports of Baehre, Stowe, Mann, and others.
4. NATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES; or contributions to the history and improvement of common or public schools, and other institutions, means and agencies of popular education in the several States (B.)
5. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE; or the principles of construction, ventilation, warming, acoustics, seating, &c., applied to school rooms, lecture halls, and class rooms, with illustrations.
6. NORMAL SCHOOLS, and other institutions, means and agencies for the professional training and improvement of teachers.
7. SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION FOR LARGE CITIES AND VILLAGES, with an account of the schools and other means of popular education and recreation in the principal cities of Europe and in this country.
8. SYSTEM OF POPULAR EDUCATION FOR SPARSELY POPULATED DISTRICTS with an account of the schools in Norway and the agricultural portions of other countries.
9. SCHOOLS OF AGRICULTURE, and other means of advancing agricultural improvement.
10. SCHOOLS OF SCIENCE applied to the mechanic arts, civil engineering, &c.
11. SCHOOLS OF TRADE, NAVIGATION, COMMERCE, &c.
12. FEMALE EDUCATION, with an account of the best seminaries for females in this country and in Europe.
13. INSTITUTIONS FOR ORPHANS.
14. SCHOOLS OF INDUSTRY, or institutions for truant, idle or neglected children, before they have been convicted of crime.
15. REFORM SCHOOLS, or institutions for young criminals.
16. HOUSES OF REFUGE, for adult criminals.
17. SECONDARY EDUCATION, including 1. institutions preparatory to college, and 2. institutions preparatory to special schools of agriculture, engineering, trade, navigation, &c.
18. COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.
19. SCHOOLS OF THEOLOGY, LAW, AND MEDICINE.
20. MILITARY AND NAVAL SCHOOLS.
21. SUPPLEMENTARY EDUCATION, including adult schools, evening schools, courses of popular lectures, debating classes, mechanic institutes, &c.
22. LIBRARIES, with hints for the purchase, arrangement, catalogueing, drawing and preservation of books, especially in libraries designed for popular use.
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27. EDUCATIONAL TRACTS, or a series of short essays on topics of immediate practical importance to teachers and school officers.
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29. EDUCATIONAL BENEFACTORS, or an account of the founders and benefactors of educational and scientific institutions.
30. SELF-EDUCATION; or hints for self-formation, with examples of the pursuit of knowledge under difficulties.
31. HOME EDUCATION; with illustrations drawn from the Family Training of different countries.
32. EDUCATIONAL NOMENCLATURE AND INDEX; or an explanation of words and terms used in describing the systems and institutions of education in different countries, with reference to the books where the subjects are discussed and treated of.

The Series, when complete, will constitute an ENCYCLOPEDIA OF EDUCATION.

B.

NATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES; or Contributions to the History and Improvement of Common or Public Schools, and other means of Popular Education.

- I. Survey of the principal agencies which determine the education of a people with an explanation of the American nomenclature of schools and education.
- II. A brief sketch of the action of the General Government in the matter of education and schools, *i. e.*, Appropriation of Public Lands for educational purposes in the several States, Military Academy at West Point, Naval School at Annapolis, Education of the Indians.
- III. Legislation of each State respecting education, with special reference to the organization, administration, and support of common or public schools, with an outline of the system in operation in 1854, or 1855, in each State.
- IV. Condition of education in each State, according to the Census returns of 1850, and other reliable sources of information, arranged under the following heads:

1. Elementary or Primary Education.
2. Academic or Secondary Education.
3. Collegiate or Superior Education, including such institutions as embrace a course of study usually made the condition of granting the degree of Bachelor of Arts.
4. Professional or Special Education.

a. Theology.	e. Agriculture.	i. Fine Arts.
b. Law.	f. Mechanics.	j. Deaf-mutes.
c. Medicine.	g. Commerce.	k. Blind.
d. Engineering.	h. Teaching.	l. Idiots.
5. Supplementary Education.

a. Evening Schools.	d. Libraries of Circulation.	f. Adult Schools.
b. Lyceums.	e. Libraries of Reference.	g. Mechanic Societies.
c. Courses of Lectures.		
6. Reformatory Schools.
7. Orphan Houses.
8. Societies for the encouragement and advancement of science, the arts and education.

Under each of the above classes of educational institutions and agencies, a distinction will be made, as far as practicable, between public and private, incorporated and individual, general and sectarian, for male and female, city and country. Under each State an outline of the system and a summary of the statistics of education will be given for all cities having more than 10,000 inhabitants.

- V. Educational funds—State, Municipal and Institutional; amount realized from tax on property, from permanent funds, and from tuition paid by scholars.
- VI. Educational buildings; remarks on their general condition, with illustrations of a few of the best specimens of each class of buildings.
- VII. Catalogue of Documents relating to the educational systems and institutions in each State—with an Index referring to the most important topics presented or discussed in each document.
- VIII. Statistical Tables, with a summary of those educational agencies, such as the press, ecclesiastical organizations, facilities of locomotion, etc., which determine the direction, and defeat or advance the education given in schools.
- IX. A brief statement of the educational systems and statistics of the most civilized countries of Europe.

[The above work is in preparation by Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, who has visited nearly every State to collect documents, and instituted personal observations and inquiries respecting the several points presented in the above plan.]

BARNARD'S MANUAL FOR TEACHERS.

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BY HENRY BARNARD, LL. D.

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 - 6. Normal Schools or Seminaries exclusively devoted to the Training of Teachers.
 - 7. Itinerating Normal School Agency.
 - 8. Teachers Institutes or Conventions.
 - 9. Permanent Organization of Teachers for Periodical Meetings for Addresses and Conferences.
 - 10. Examination of Teachers and Inspection of Schools by School Officers and Trustees.
 - 11. Promotion of Teachers from a Lower to a Higher Grade of School on open Examination.
 - 12. System of Examination for Admission to the Profession by Teachers themselves.
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 - 14. Educational Periodicals.
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 - 1. Legal Rights of the Teacher.
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THE TEACHER: or Moral Influences employed in the Instruction and Government of the young. By Jacob Abbott: with engravings. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1856. Price \$1.00. 353 pages.

This book was intended originally by the author to detail the arrangements which he had found practicable and successful in the organization and management of the Mount Vernon School for girls in Boston, and was one of the earliest contributions to the educational literature of the country, it having been first published in 1832.

CONTENTS. CHAPTER I. Interest in Teaching. Moral Responsibility. Multiplicity of Objects. II. General Arrangements. III. Instruction. IV. Moral Discipline. V. Religious Influences. VI. Mount Vernon School. VII. Scheming. VIII. Reports of Cases. IX. The Teacher's first day.

THE SCHOOL AND SCHOOL-MASTER, by Alonzo Potter, (Bishop of Pennsylvania,) and George B. Emerson. New York: Harper and Brothers. Boston: Fowle and Capen. Price \$1.00. 551 pages.

This volume was prepared at the request of the late James Wadsworth, of Geneseo, New York, with special reference to the condition and wants of common schools in that State. Its general principles and most of its details are applicable to similar schools in other parts of the country, and, indeed, to all seminaries employed in giving elementary instruction. Mr. Wadsworth directed a copy of it to be placed in each of the school libraries of New York, at his expense, and his noble example was followed in respect to the schools of Massachusetts, by the Hon. Martin Brimmer, of Boston.

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CONTENTS, PART II. Introduction. BOOK I. QUALITIES. Chap. I. Mental and Moral, important in a Teacher. Chap. II. Health. Exercise. Diet. Sleep. Recreation. BOOK II. STUDIES. Chap. I. Laws of the Creation. Chap. II. Natural Laws. Chap. III. Independence of the Natural Laws. Chap. IV. Higher Studies. Chap. V. Advantages of a Teacher's Life.

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 Book V. THE SCHOOL-HOUSE. Chap. I. Situation. Chap. II. Size. Chap. III. Position and Arrangement. Chap. IV. Light. Warming. Ventilation.

THE TEACHER'S MANUAL, by Thomas H. Palmer. Boston: Marsh, Capen, Lyon & Webb, 1840 pp. 263. Price, 75 cents.

This work received the prize of five hundred dollars, offered by the American Institute of Instruction, in 1838, for "the best Essay on a system of Education best adapted to the Common Schools of our country."

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THE TEACHER TAUGHT, by Emerson Davis, late Principal of the Westfield Academy. Boston: Marsh, Capen, Lyon & Webb, 1839. pp. 79. Price 37½ cents.

This valuable work was first published in 1833, as "An Abstract of a Course of Lectures on School-keeping."

SLATE AND BLACKBOARD EXERCISES, By William A. Alcott. New York: Mark H. Newman. Price 37 cents.

The chapters in this little work were first published in the Connecticut Common School Journal, in 1841. The various suggestions and methods are highly practical.

THEORY AND PRACTICE OF TEACHING, by David P. Page, Principal of the New York State Normal School. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

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HINTS AND METHODS FOR THE USE OF TEACHERS. Hartford: Price 25 cents.

This volume is made up principally of selections from publications on methods of teaching, not easily accessible; and under each subject discussed, reference is made to various volumes, where additional suggestions can be found.

THE DISTRICT SCHOOL AS IT WAS, by one who went to it, (*Rev. Warren Burton.*) New York: J. Orville Taylor, 1838.

In this amusing picture of "the lights and shadows" of school life as it was in New England twenty years ago, the teachers and scholars of some of our District Schools as they are, will recognize the school-house, books, practices, and methods with which they are too familiar.

PHYSIOLOGY AND CALISTHENICS: for Schools and Families. By Catherine E. Beecher. New York: Harper & Brothers. 50 cents. 58 pages.

This admirable work, by one who knows the value of health, by its loss, from the want in part of the knowledge of those principles which it so clearly illustrates, should be owned by every teacher, and illustrated and taught in every school-room.

CONTENTS. PART I. Physical Education. II. Laws of Health and Happiness. III. Abuses of the Bodily Organs by the American People. IV. Calisthenics.—First Course—School room Exercises. Second Course—Hall Exercises, with numerous illustrations.

CONFESSIONS OF A SCHOOL-MASTER, by Dr. William A. Alcott. New York: Mark H. Newman. Price 50 cents.

If our teachers will read these confessions of errors of omission and commission, and the record which it gives of real excellencies attained by the steps of a slow and laborious progress, they will save themselves the mortification of the first, and realize earlier the fruits of the last. Few men have the moral courage to look their former bad methods so directly in the face. Every young teacher should read this book.

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CHAPTER X. MY EXPERIENCE AS A SCHOOL VISITOR. Section I. Examination of Teachers. Section II. Special Visits to Schools. Section III. Meetings for Improvement. Section IV. Introduction of a New Reading Book.

CHAPTER XI. MY TENTH YEAR IN SCHOOL. Section I. Commencement of School. Section II. Spelling, Reading, Writing, etc. Section III. Teaching Geography. Section IV. A Practical Exercise. Section V. Experiment in Teaching Etymology. Section VI. Teaching Orthography. Section VII. Forcing Knowledge. Section VIII. Teaching Pupils to sit still. Section IX. My Moral Influence. Section X. My Ill Health. Section XI. Countenancing the Sports of my Pupils. Section XII. Discipline.

THE SCHOOL TEACHER'S MANUAL, by Henry Dunn, Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society, London. Hartford: Reed & Barber, 1839. pp. 223. Price 50 cents.

The American edition of this work is edited by Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet, which is the best evidence that could be given of the general soundness of the views presented by the English author.

TEACHING A SCIENCE: THE TEACHER AN ARTIST, by Rev. B. R. Hall. New York: Baker & Scribner.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT, by Lyman Cobb. New York: Mark H. Newman.

SCHOOL KEEPING, by an Experienced Teacher. Philadelphia: John Grigg, 1831.

THE SCHOOL-MASTER'S FRIEND, with the Committee-man's Guide, by Theodore Dwight, Jr. pp. 360. New York, Roe Lockwood, 415, Broadway, 1835.

LECTURES ON EDUCATION, by Horace Mann, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education. Boston: Fowle & Capen, 1845. Pp. 338. Price \$1.00.

This volume embraces seven lectures, most of which were delivered before the Annual Common School Conventions, held in the several counties of Massachusetts in 1838, '39, '40, '41, and '42. They are published in this form at the request of the Board of Education. No man, teacher, committee, parent, or friend of education generally, can read these lectures without obtaining much practical knowledge, and without being fired with a holy zeal in the cause.

CONTENTS. *Lecture I.* Means and Objects of Common School Education. *Lecture II* Special Preparation, a prerequisite to Teaching. *Lecture III.* The Necessity of Education in a Republican Government. *Lecture IV.* What God does, and what He leaves for Man to do, in the work of Education. *Lecture V.* An Historical View of Education; showing its Dignity and its Degradation. *Lecture VI.* On District School Libraries. *Lecture VII.* On School Publications.

LOCKE AND MILTON ON EDUCATION. Boston: Gray & Brown, 1830.

THE EDUCATION OF MOTHERS, by L. Aimé-Martin. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard, 1843.

EDUCATION AND HEALTH, by Amariah Brigham. Boston: Marsh, Capen & Lyon, 1843.

DR. CHANNING ON SELF CULTURE. Boston: Monroe & Co. Price 33 cents.

MISS SEDGWICK ON SELF TRAINING, OR MEANS AND ENDS. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These two volumes,—the first written with special reference to young men, and the last, to young women, should be read by all young teachers, who would make their own individual character, attainments, and conduct, the basis of all improvement in their profession.

The following works have special reference to instruction in Infant and Primary Schools:

EXERCISES FOR THE SENSES. London: Charles Knight & Co. Published under the superintendence of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge.

LESSONS ON OBJECTS: as given to children between the ages of six and eight, in a Pestalozzian School at Cheam, Sussex, by C. Mayo. London: Seeley, Burnside & Seeley, Fleet street, 1845.

LESSONS ON SHELLS, as given to children between the ages of eight and ten, and by the author of "Lessons on Objects." London: Seeley, Burnside & Seeley, 1846.

PATTERSON'S ZOOLOGY FOR SCHOOLS. London.

MODEL LESSONS FOR INFANT SCHOOL TEACHERS, by the author of "Lessons on Objects." Parts I. and II. London: Seeley, Burnside & Seeley, 1846.

WILDERSPIN'S INFANT SYSTEM. London: James S. Hodgson, 112 Fleet street.

WILDERSPIN'S ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. London: James S. Hodgson.

CHAMBERS' EDUCATIONAL COURSE,—INFANT EDUCATION, from two to six years of age. Edinburgh: W. R. Chambers.

PRACTICAL EDUCATION, by Maria Edgeworth. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1835.

THE TEACHER AND PARENT; a Treatise upon Common School Education. By Charles Northend. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. Price 75 cents.

This is a valuable treatise, full of practical suggestions to teachers and parents, by one who has felt the want of such suggestions while acting as teacher of the Epes Grammar School in Salem, and more recently as Superintendent of Public Schools, in Danvers, Mass.

CONTENTS. PART I. CHAPTER I. Common Schools. II. The Teacher. III. Thorough Knowledge, Aptness to Teach, Accuracy, Patience, and Perseverance. IV. Candor, Truthfulness, and Courteousness. V. Ingenuity, Individuality. VI. Kindness, Gentleness, Forbearance, and Cheerfulness. VII. Common Sense. Knowledge of Human Nature, General Information, Desires to do Good and Hopefulness. VIII. Correct Moral Principles, Exemplary Habits and Deportment; Diligence. IX. Neatness and Order; Self-Control. X. Earnestness, Energy, Enthusiasm. XI. Judgment and Prudence; System and Punctuality; Independence. XII. Professional Feeling and Interest; a Deep and Well-grounded Interest in Teaching. XIII. Means of Improvement. XIV. Teaching. XV. Discipline. XVI. Means of interesting Pupils and Parents. XVII. Moral Instruction. XVIII. Emulation and Prizes. XIX. Primary Schools. XX. Lessons and Recitations. XXI. Examinations and Exhibitions. XXII. Multiplicity of Studies. XXIII. Reading. XXIV. Spelling. XXV. Penmanship. XXVI. Geography. XXVII. Grammar. XXVIII. Letter Writing and Composition. XXIX. Arithmetic. XXX. Book-Keeping; Declamation. XXXI. Singing. XXXII. Miscellaneous.

PART II. CHAPTER I. Introductory Remarks. II. School-Houses. III. Children should not be sent to School too Young. IV. To Prove Good Teachers. V. School Supervision. VI. Parents should Encourage the Teacher. VII. Specific Duties. VIII. Candor and Charitableness. IX. High and Honorable Motives.

AMERICAN EDUCATION; its Principles and Elements. By Edward D. Mansfield. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1853.

This is a philosophical discussion of the principles, and not a practical treatise on the modes of instruction, in the several subjects treated of.

CONTENTS. CHAPTER I. The idea of a Republic. II. Means of perpetuating Civil and Religious Liberty. III. The idea of American Education. IV. The Teacher—his qualifications, teaching, and character. V. The idea of Science. VI. The Utility of Mathematics. VII. The Utility of Astronomy. VIII. The Utility of History. IX. The Science of Language. X. Literature a Means of Education. XI. Conversation an Instructor. XII. The Constitution the Law-book of the Nation. XIII. The Bible the Law-book from Heaven. XIV. The Education of Women. Elementary Ideas. The Future.

THE TEACHER'S INSTITUTE; or, Familiar Hints to Young Teachers. By William B. Fowle. Boston: Lemuel N. Ide, 1849. Price 75 cents.

Mr. Fowle has had a long and successful experience as a teacher, particularly in the monitorial system, and has been eminently successful in conducting the exercises of Teachers' Institutes, or gatherings of young teachers for the purpose of instruction, in the matter and manner of teaching. This volume embraces the results of his experience, both as a teacher of children and of teachers.

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POPULAR EDUCATION; for the use of Teachers and Parents. By Ira Mayhew. New York: Burgess & Cady. Price 75 cents.

This Treatise was prepared and published in accordance with a resolution of the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Michigan, by the author, while Superintendent of Public Instruction.

CONTENTS. CHAPTER I. In what does a correct Education consist? II. The Importance of Physical Education. III. Physical Education—The Laws of Health. IV. The Laws of Health—Philosophy of Respiration. V. The Nature of Intellectual and Moral Education. VI. The Education of the Five Senses. VII. The Necessity of Moral and Religious Education. VIII. The Importance of Popular Education. Education dispels the Evils of Ignorance. Education increases the productiveness of Labor. Education diminishes Pauperism and Crime. Education increases human Happiness. IX. Political Necessity of National Education. The Practicability of National Education. X. The Means of Universal Education. Good School-houses should be provided. Well-qualified Teachers should be employed. Schools should continue through the Year. Every Child should attend School. The redeeming Power of Common Schools. Index.

The following works will exhibit a pretty full view of the progress and condition of education in Europe.

SMITH'S HISTORY OF EDUCATION. Harper & Brothers. Price 50 cents.

This work is substantially an abridgement of the great German work of Schwartz, and is worthy of an attentive perusal, not only for its historical view of the subject, but for the discussion of the general principles which should be recognized in every system of education.

BIBER'S MEMOIR OF PESTALOZZI, and his plan of Education. London: I. Souter, 1831.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS OF DR. FELLEBERG, with an Appendix containing Woodbridge's Sketches of Hofwyl. London: Longman, 1842.

REPORT ON EDUCATION IN EUROPE, by Alexander Dallas Bache. Philadelphia: Lydia R. Bailey, 1829. pp. 666.

REPORT ON ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION IN EUROPE, by Calvin E. Stowe, D. D. Boston: Thomas H. Webb & Co. Price 31 cents.

SEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT of the Secretary of the (Massachusetts) Board of Education, Hon. Horace Mann, 1843. Boston: Fowle and Capen. Price 25 cents.

These three reports introduce the teacher into the school-rooms of the best teachers in Europe, and enable him to profit by the observations and experience of men who have been trained by a thorough preparatory course of study and practice at home, to the best methods of classification, instruction, and government of schools, as pursued abroad.

ACCOUNT OF THE EDINBURGH SESSIONAL SCHOOL, Edinburgh, by John Wood. Boston: Monroe & Francis, 1830.

COUSIN'S REPORT ON PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN PRUSSIA, translated by Sarah Austin. New York: Wiley & Long, 1835.

WILLM ON THE EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE, translated from the French by Prof. Nichol. Glasgow: 1847.

MANUAL OF THE SYSTEM OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION pursued in the model schools of the British and Foreign School Society. London: 1839.

MINUTES OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION, from 1838 to 1844. London: 8 vols.

STOW'S TRAINING SYSTEM, as pursued in the Glasgow Normal Seminary. Edinburgh: 1840.

AN OUTLINE OF THE METHODS OF TEACHING, in the Model School of the Board of National Education for Ireland. Dublin: I. S. Folds, 1840.

COUSIN'S REPORT ON PRIMARY INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND. London: 1835.

GIRARDIN'S REPORT ON EDUCATION IN AUSTRIA, BAVARIA, &c. Paris: 1835.

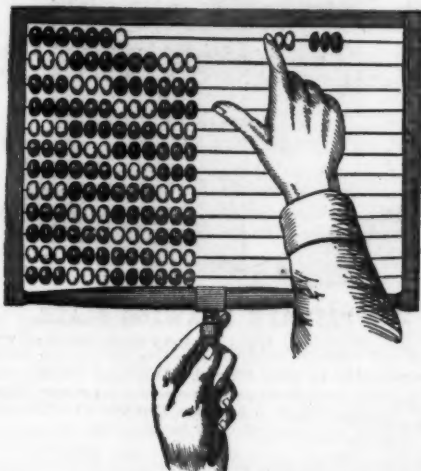
HICKSON'S ACCOUNT OF THE DUTCH AND GERMAN SCHOOLS. London: Taylor and Walton, 1840.

INTRODUCTION TO THE SCIENCE AND ART OF EDUCATION AND INSTRUCTION FOR MASTERS OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS, by B. S. Denzel, President of Royal Training College for School-masters at Esslingen. 6 vols. Stuttgart, 1839.

This is considered the most complete German Treatise on the subject

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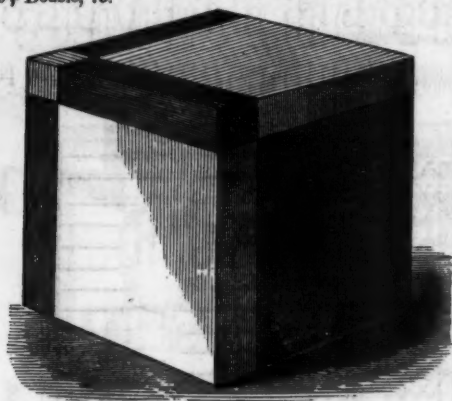
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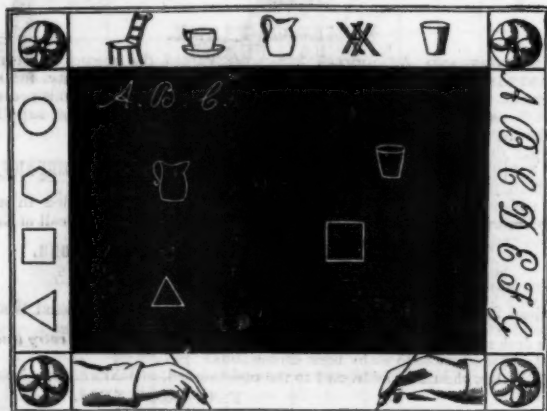
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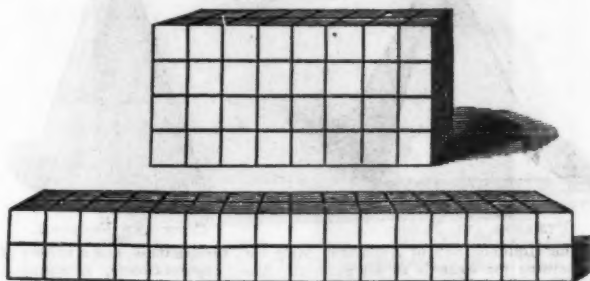
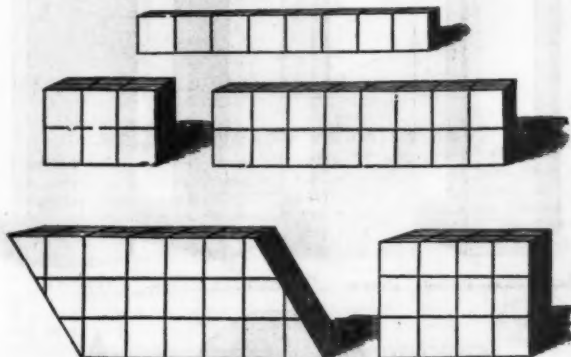
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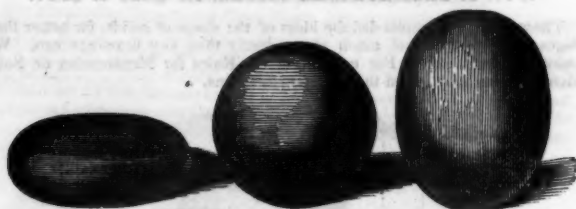
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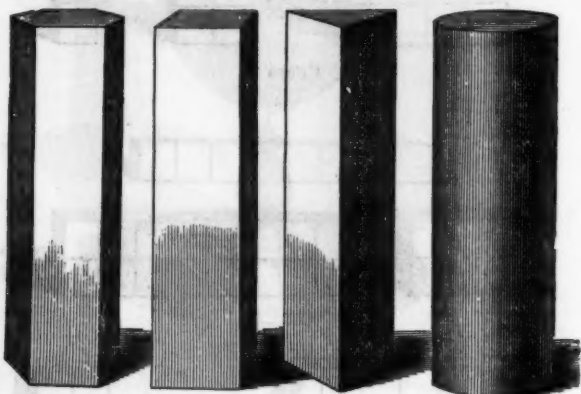
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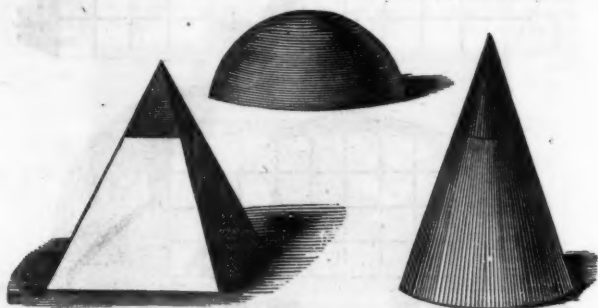
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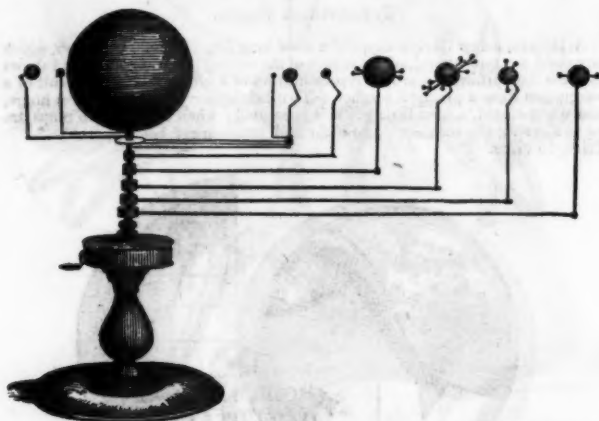
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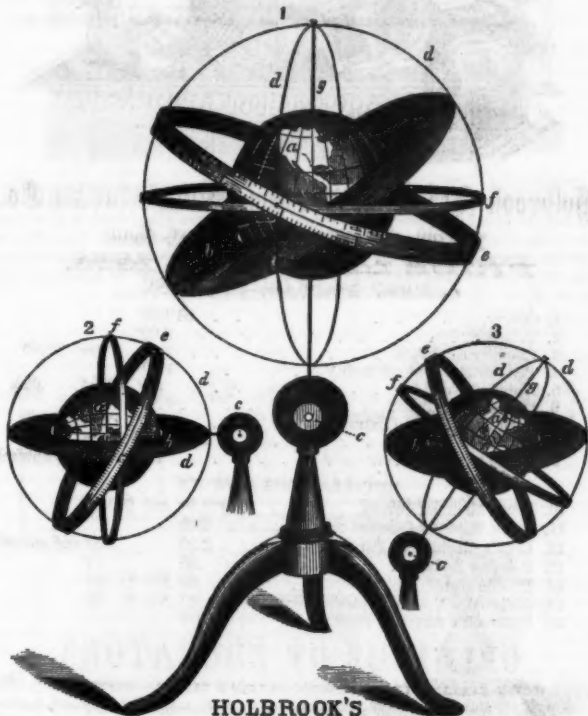


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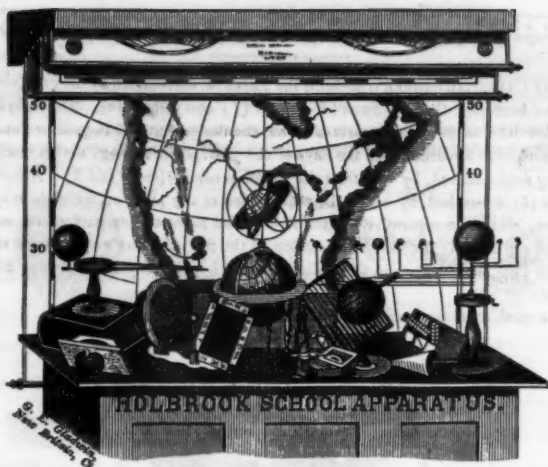


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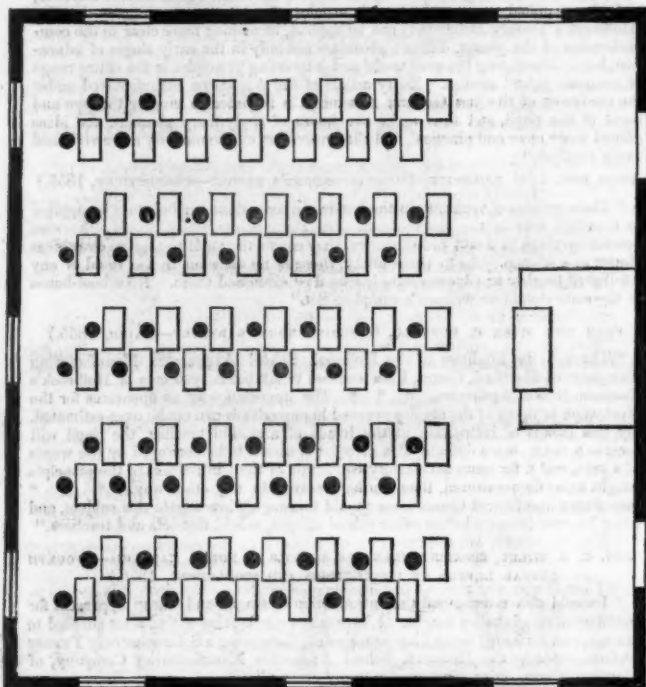
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